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# Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education

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**Volume 5, Number 1, Fall 2000**

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# *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*

## *SPECIAL ISSUE: PROCEEDINGS FOR THE TEXAS FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONFERENCE 2000*

**Volume 5** **Number 1** **Fall 2000**


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FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION PROGRAM
THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

# *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education (TPFLE)*

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION PROGRAM
THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

# *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*

## *Contemporary Issues in Foreign and Second Language Learning and Teaching*

FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION PROGRAM
THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

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## *To our readers,*

*This issue of TPFLE celebrates the beginning of a beautiful friendship – or maybe we should call it a marriage of convenience – for in the following pages you'll find ten articles that made their first impact on FLE scholarship as presentations at TexFLEC 2000, that is, the Texas Foreign Language Education Conference.*

*Hosted by the Foreign Language Education Students' Association (FLESA) at the University of Texas at Austin on March 31 and April 1, TexFLEC 2000 was the first of what promises to be an important series of conferences in foreign language education. The conference drew speakers and attendees from the far reaches of the U.S. – indeed, the world – as well as from the faculty and students of the FLE Program and language departments at UT. So rich was the exchange of ideas at the conference that many attendees and speakers expressed a desire to have a copy of the conference proceedings.*

*That's where TPFLE comes in. TPFLE readers and TexFLEC conference goers are pretty much the same sort of people. Why not combine our strengths and devote a portion of our journal to representative papers from the conference? Our editors were already busy culling through a stack of manuscripts for inclusion in this issue. They would just have to make the stack a little taller. And that's exactly what we've done. Of the thirteen articles in this issue, ten are based on papers presented at the conference, while three arrived to us through the usual channels of submission.*

*First, let's review the conference papers. The first article is "CHAT in EFL – Communicative Humanistic Acculturation Techniques," by Daniel Evans. This paper presents a surprisingly simple but logical way to make an asset of an EFL teacher's predicament as a foreigner. Next is Lindsy Myers's "Task Interpretation and Task Effectiveness: A Vygotskian Analysis of a French L2 Classroom Task." This article explores the potential of meaningful, goal-directed tasks as productive settings for language learning. The next article, "Envisioning a Standards-Based Methods Course: Preparing Second Language Educators for the 21st Century," by Kathleen Bueno, describes a current model for pre-service training, reviews second language methods syllabi, and reflects upon a particular methods course – all in the process of building an understanding of what a standards-based second language methods course might be.*

*Two articles focus on language teaching and learning beliefs held by future teachers. In "Teachers' Beliefs About Language Learning and Teaching: A Cross-Cultural Comparison," Nae-Dong Yang examines the beliefs of elementary school teachers in Taiwan and compares their beliefs with those of language teachers in the U.S. In the other study, "Foreign Language Methods Students' Beliefs About Language Learning and Teaching," Stasie Harrington and Tammy Hertel survey students in language teaching methods courses to identify common student-held preconceptions about language learning and teaching.*

*Two articles reflect upon the dual-cultural status of many language learners in U.S. schools. In "From a Foreign Language Perspective: A Snapshot View of the Dual-Language Program in Two Inner-City High-Poverty Elementary Schools," Sherry Coy and Lucrecia Litherland describe a program to develop bilingual and biliteracy skills in two urban elementary schools. Next, Barbara González-Pino, in "An Infusion*

*Curriculum for the Heritage Speaker of Spanish," reviews program models for teaching Spanish to heritage speakers in urban commuter institutions and reports on an experiment to infuse materials about Southwest Spanish into second-, third-, and fourth-semester Spanish classes.*

*Finally, three articles discuss classroom techniques for helping students develop language and cultural skills. "Multiple Metaphors: Teaching Tense and Aspect to English Speakers," by Karen Cody, proposes a synthesis of instructional methods (traditional plus constructivist) that incorporates metaphors of various types to help English speakers acquire a native-like use of tense and aspect. Sarah Dodson, in "FAQs: Learning Language Through Drama," shows how techniques of the stage can be used to teach languages. In our last article from the Conference, "Using Video to Teach for Sociolinguistic Competence in the Foreign Language Classroom," Caryn Witten describes an input enhancement technique that incorporates video and discusses the effect of video on improving sociolinguistic competence.*

*Those ten articles are from TexFLEC, and they are presented first in this issue, but that is not the end of what we have to offer. Also included are three additional articles, each with an unusual slant on FLE education. In "Political and Socio-Cultural Factors in Foreign Language Education: The Case of Lebanon," Rula Diab describes how political, social, and cultural issues affect the motivation and attitudes of Lebanese EFL students. In "A Qualitative Approach to Authenticity in the Foreign Language Classroom: A Study of University Students Learning English in Korea," Dong-Kyoo Kim studies the effects of authentic instructional input on learning attitudes and language proficiency. In our final article, Sherry Marx ("An Exploration of Pre-Service Teacher Perceptions of Second Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom") discusses the different ways White and Hispanic pre-service teachers relate to English language learners they are tutoring.*

*Thirteen articles, along with Jeong-Yeon Kim's review, make this issue fertile ground for discovery among those of us committed to FLE research and practice. We at TPFLE want to thank the many FLESAns who made TexFLEC – and hence this special issue of TPFLE – possible. We especially salute E.G. Kim-Rivera, former President of FLESA and founder of the Conference, and Terri Wells, current President of FLESA and Co-Chair of TexFLEC 2000, both of whom blazed the trail for many TexFLECs to come and, in doing so, raised our sights a little higher.*

*December 31, 2000*

# *CHAT in EFL – Communicative Humanistic Acculturation Techniques**

DANIEL W. EVANS, School of International Studies, Saint Michael's College

*This paper introduces the concept of communicative humanistic acculturation teaching techniques and presents examples of activities used in university EFL classes in South Korea. The activities elicited the aid of the students in the roles of adviser, facilitator, and counselor in the teacher's on-going struggle to cope with adjustment to living in Korea. They enhanced learners' acquisition of English by (1) providing realistic, purposeful communicative encounters that motivated students to express themselves; (2) establishing a personal relationship between students and the foreign teacher; and, by extension, (3) fostering positive attitudes toward the language, culture, and people of the United States.*

## INTRODUCTION

Preliminary versions of the title of this paper contained the words "exposing myself in the classroom." Although I decided to select the more technically descriptive title, I still think that "exposing myself" rather accurately captures the gist of the paper: the idea of getting personal in the language class in ways that will enhance the learning experience.

A while back, I had the occasion to visit an old friend, Rob, with whom I had served in the Peace Corps in Korea many years ago. Rob was still involved in the business of teaching English as a second language but no longer to bright-eyed, eager, and innocent Korean university students. Instead, he had found a teaching job in a maximum-security prison. Certainly there must be a great deal of satisfaction involved in that kind of teaching, but one thing he told me about his job made a very memorable impression on me. He was not allowed to give out any sort of personal information about himself, his friends, or his family – not even real names. As a long-time English language teacher I was stunned at the thought of the limitations of such a teaching situation. I found the notion totally stifling! When you develop relationships with people, you have to share information, opinions, attitudes, and values – not to do so creates a cold, impersonal, environment. It may be businesslike and efficient, but it is certainly not "humanistic."

As we know, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) purports to be based on a humanistic philosophy of education as one of its cornerstones (Dubin, & Olshtain, 1986; McNeil, 1977), and I guess what humanism really means is that we should develop real human relationships with students. By doing so, we accomplish more than just being nice people. A warm relationship of mutual human respect leads students to like their teacher, and then, by extension, to like their class, the learning, the target language, the target culture, and the people who are members of that culture. All this liking, that is, this

* Presented at the Texas Foreign Language Education Conference 2000 (TexFLEC 2000), University of Texas at Austin, March 31-April 1, 2000.

set of positive attitudes, serves to enhance and maximize the learning process. The facilitating effect of positive attitudes is a well-established and well-accepted principle of second language acquisition, supported by numerous empirical studies, and perhaps more importantly, it is an intuitively appealing and obvious notion.

### A Chat Activity For Day One

So I had my humanistic principles in mind a couple of years ago when I was scheduled to meet my new English classes for the first day of teaching at Jeonju University in South Korea. I had been offered the opportunity to return to the country where I had spent my Peace Corps days, this time for one semester as an exchange professor. On that first day, I had the above-mentioned set of humanistic affective goals in mind, but I also had in mind a set of cognitive/academic/diagnostic goals as well. I had no clear idea of the students' proficiencies in any of the skills of English, especially listening comprehension and speaking. So I was looking for a first-day, get-acquainted type activity that would satisfy both sets of objectives. I came up with the Teacher's Autobiographical Dictation (adapted from Davis & Rinvolucri, 1988). In this activity, the teacher prepares sentences about various aspects of his (the masculine pronoun is used because the teacher is male in this case) life: childhood, school days, professional life, hobbies, etc. He presents them to the class in groups of four sentences of which three are true and one is untrue. As students listen to the sentences, they are instructed to write down only the ones they believe to be untrue. It is a matter of guessing since they have no real way of knowing the information. As the students listen and write, the teacher can walk around observing how well they are able to comprehend and reproduce the sentences. This process provides an informal diagnosis of both listening comprehension and writing.

Below is an example set of statements about my graduate school days at the University of Texas that I made up and shared with the TexFLEC audience in Austin. In the presentation, it provided a link between many audience members and me and helped the rest of the presentation to go smoothly. "Listen carefully and write down the sentence that you think is not true," I instructed.

A. I lived in housing made from converted WWII Army barracks.

B. I took three courses from Dr. Bordie.

C. I taught at the Texas IEP where I had an office in a closet.

D. I didn't care much for Austin, but I liked the University.

(Of course choice D is untrue. Who couldn't love Austin?)

The appendix contains a complete list of the statements I used in Korea for this activity. The statements are designed to provide leads to various aspects of U.S. culture and life that can be exploited in further class-

room communication. They also led to the sharing of several bits of rather personal information about the teacher such as being an overweight child, not having a steady girlfriend in high school, going through a divorce, and the death of a beloved pet dog. I realize that some teachers may not feel comfortable discussing such personal issues in class with their students. In any humanistic activity, participants should always have a clearly understood option not to participate if they prefer, (Moskowitz, 1978). Likewise, in this activity the teacher controls the content of the dictation and has the option not to include whatever he chooses not to reveal. I myself was totally comfortable sharing these details, and I felt closer to the students for having done do.

Step two of this activity involved placing students into groups of four or five. Each group was to discuss the sentences and arrive at a group consensus as to what the untrue statements were. Of course, this was a communicative activity that required much discussion and negotiation of meaning. It also provided an opportunity for the teacher to observe and diagnose students' speaking proficiency levels. Each group reported their consensus to the class as a whole and the teacher finally revealed the false statement and elaborated on the discussion of each statement.

As a follow-up activity, students were asked to prepare for homework similar sets of true/untrue statements about themselves to share with others in small groups in the next class. I was very pleased with the success of the Teacher's Autobiographical Dictation activity: It captured the interest of the students; it immediately put them at ease with the daunting new foreigner in their midst and planted the seeds for a warm personal relationship and positive array of attitudes; it motivated them to use their English for real communication; and it provided me with the academic diagnostic information I needed for curriculum planning.

## The Power Of Acculturation In ESL Learning/Teaching

So next I began considering what else I could do to maximize the development of communicative skills in this EFL environment. I had previously had plenty of teaching experience both in EFL and ESL contexts. It was painfully obvious that the most rapid and efficient development of English communication skills was in ESL contexts such as those of Saint Michael's English Language Programs where I currently teach. What exactly is it that promotes language learning and communication skills so well in the ESL context? Of course the obvious answer is the unlimited amount of exposure to English the total immersion environment provides; there is no substitute for quantity of exposure. But, to go beyond the obvious, let us try to examine some specific outcomes of the ESL immersion model that contribute to learners' success.

I have observed that some learners progress much better than others in the ESL context. These are the ones, I believe, who more actively engage themselves in a dynamic ac-

culturation process—a process that creates a multitude of interactions in which real communicative needs have to be satisfied for the learner's very survival. There are several aspects to this survival. (1) There is survival in terms of *basic human needs*. They have to interact in English to accomplish the numerous transactions involved in life: obtaining food and shelter, paying bills, buying things, etc. Lots of language learning takes place when our basic human physical needs are at stake. (2) Then there is survival in *the academic sense*. ESL students have to acculturate themselves to new expectations, processes, and norms of academic life in the United States. This aspect of acculturation also requires a lot of communication and language development as English becomes the sole vehicle for academic activity. (3) Thirdly, there is *social survival*. ESL learners in the United States must develop social relationships with others through English both outside the classroom and inside as well. Outside, the more successful learners seek out relationships with Americans and fellow ESL learners from other cultures. They make friends, and in the process develop their sociolinguistic competence. Inside the classroom too, there is a powerful social dynamic taking place. Students find themselves thrust into a random group of fellow learners who represent, ideally, a wide range of ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Their experiences differ greatly, as do their beliefs and values. They need to seek out common ground and create bonds in order to work and learn together as a cohesive unit. The learner becomes the representative of his or her culture and feels an obligation to describe and explain its ways as he or she finds out about the ways of others. It is a wonderful and beautiful acculturation process that is one of the best parts of ESL study.

## Applying Acculturation Techniques In Efl Contexts

Of course diversity of this nature and its resulting acculturation processes do not exist in the EFL situation in locations such as South Korean universities. Comparing the EFL context to that of ESL point by point, first, there is very limited exposure to the target language and the target language fulfills little if any real communicative purposes. It is not used to provide basic human needs, it is not the vehicle for academic survival, nor is it used for social interactions. Rather than a diverse group of fellow learners using English to forge new bonds and exchange cultural information, the Korean students' fellows are already well known to one another and share virtually identical cultural backgrounds. In short, there are no acculturation processes to propel the language learning. There is no compelling need to communicate in English.

But soon I came to realize—perhaps as I struggled to open a bank account, buy a bus ticket, or greet a colleague in my elementary Korean—that there certainly was a dynamic acculturation process taking place. It was I, the helpless foreigner, who was engaged in the acculturation strug-

gle—not my students. I should try to take advantage of this acculturation process to create communicative purposes that might enhance the communicative skills of my students. Following humanistic principles, I would open up my life to them and let them vicariously experience my attempts to acculturate myself to my new environment. I would rely on their inherent Korean sense of generous hospitality to motivate them to try to help me in my struggle to survive. I would also call upon their strong pride in their own fascinating culture to motivate them to educate this "ignorant Westerner" in their customs and value system.

### The "Helpless Foreigner" Scenario

The idea itself is nothing new. I am quite certain that a lot of foreign teachers make use of the "helpless foreigner" scenario from time to time. I recall a very effective writing assignment I gave to a class at a Japanese university years ago when I had just begun a teaching position there. I had a brand new bank account with a shinny new ATM card. The only problem was that the instructions on the machine were written entirely in Japanese *kanji* and *kana* characters. Reading the instructions and using the machine were beyond me. I shared my dilemma with my class and gave them the assignment of going to my specific bank and writing a clear set of instructions in English, complete with diagrams, for performing the various functions I needed to perform on the ATM. It was great! I was finally able to retrieve my cash! And the students had used their English for a truly useful real-life communicative purpose. We were all happy, and, on the affective side, we bonded a bit.

Countless language activities using any or all language skills can be developed that allow EFL students to provide useful information that the foreign teacher truly needs to survive in and to better understand the host culture. Some examples include:

How to take a train/bus to ____.

What/how to order in a restaurant.

What kind of holiday is ____?

### Using Chat Activities In Korea

The following are brief descriptions of several other ways in which I made use of the Communicative Humanistic Acculturation Technique during my semester in Korea.

#### Gift Ranking Activity

I told the class about my engagement to Sinyoung, a Korean born and raised in Japan, along with information about her family. I explained that I would travel to Japan over the Ch'usok holidays (a kind of Korean Thanksgiving) to meet the family for the first time. I was having trouble deciding what to take as a gift for the family. In small groups, students discussed the question and mutually agreed on the five best gift ideas in order of preference. Each group then reported their results to the whole class. Much explanation of traditional

Korean gift items was required as well as information on cost of items and where they could be bought in the local area, how to get to the store or market, etc.

**Meeting Future In-Laws Role Play**

As a follow-up activity to the previous gift-ranking activity, I admitted to the class that I was quite nervous about meeting my future in-laws. How should I act? What should I say? What will they say, ask, and do? I then had groups prepare role plays enacting the scene and playing the roles of Sinyoung her father, her mother, and me. Scripts were generated, skits were rehearsed, and finally they were presented in class and recorded on videotape. After viewing the videos, the class could discuss and evaluate each group's efforts, perhaps even casting votes on best skit, best actor, actress, etc.

**Reacting to Video of Japan Trip**

I showed the class a video that I took on my trip to Japan that included scenes of my fiancee's home, a typical residential neighborhood, a supermarket, a meal in a Japanese restaurant, and various points of interest in Kyoto and Osaka. I asked students to react in writing to what they saw, discussing their impressions of Japan. Because of historical realities, Koreans have deep seated, often negative, emotional reactions to Japan. Many students wrote that viewing the country through this vicarious personal connection caused them to see Japan very differently, in a much more positive manner than they otherwise might have. Many of their papers were quite touching.

**Two-Brothers Midterm Exam**

The personal humanistic aspects of CHAT can be applied even on something as formal and impersonal as a test. As part of a mid-term exam, I used true personal data about my brother and myself. The students had studied basic sentence combining techniques through a textbook exercise on the Kennedy brothers (e.g., while John, Robert, and Edward Kennedy each shared the same environmental influences growing up, they turned out to be quite different adults). Following that example, I created a similar exercise that compared me to my brother. After combining the sentences into a guided paragraph, students created short essays comparing and contrasting themselves to a sibling or close friend.

## CONCLUSION

While the EFL environment often presents more challenges and fewer opportunities for language acquisition than does the ESL context, the employment of CHAT—communicative, humanistic, acculturation techniques—can help capture some aspects of the ESL context that make it such an effective acquisition environment. The *communicative* aspect provides realistic and purposeful exchange of information and motivates learners to express themselves. The *humanistic* aspect establishes personal relationships among students and teacher and fosters positive attitudes toward all aspects of the lan-

guage, culture, and learning experience. The *acculturation* aspect exploits a process of adapting to and surviving in a new environment to propel the learning experience. In the EFL teaching context, the acculturation process of the foreign teacher substitutes for that of the students in ESL contexts.

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## APPENDIX
## TEACHER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL DICTATION

You will hear groups of four sentences about your teacher. Only three of the sentences are true. Write down only the one statement that you think is **not true**.

### Childhood
I was born in the state of Missouri.
I never went to kindergarten.
I was always a skinny kid. (false)
I was a pretty good student.

### High School Days
I played on my high school football team.
I had a steady girlfriend. (false)
I got my driver's license when I was 16.
My favorite sport was tennis.

### University Days
English was my major. (false)
I lived in an apartment off-campus.
I rode a motorcycle to school.
I tried skiing for the first time.

### Peace Corps Days
I taught English at Dongguk University.
I got married in Korea to a Korean woman.
I got a black belt in Taekwondo.
I traveled to Thailand on my winter vacation. (false)

### After Peace Corps
I worked in the world's tallest building.
My wife and I had one son, no daughters.
I went back to the University of Missouri for graduate school. (false)
We came back to Korea for another two years.

### In Japan
I worked for Waseda University in Tokyo. (false)
I had a van and a motorcycle.
My son could speak Japanese better than I.
My wife and I got a divorce.

### In Vermont
I drive a red sports car.
I have a large dog. (false – my dog recently died)
I live alone in a big house.
I play an electric guitar.

# *Task Interpretation and Task Effectiveness: A Vygotskian Analysis of a French L2 Classroom Task**

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*This paper focuses on second language learning through task-based interaction. Language tasks encourage L2 learning by using language as a tool to accomplish a goal. This study analyzes the interaction of first-semester French students while performing a group task created according to criteria in recent research by Lee. Task interpretation varied among groups including type of interaction, division of labor, use of English as a mediator, scaffolding, meta-task talk, and off-task talk. However, components of an effective task are apparent: interaction between form and meaning, real communication, interactive learning, later success, and positive classroom morale. Lee's suggestions for task-based classroom interaction are compatible with a Vygotskian framework for learning. Together they provide the theoretical and practical basis for the potential of tasks in the classroom.*

## INTRODUCTION

This paper focuses on second language learning through task-based interaction as well as the compatibility of the theories of task-based language learning and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. Vygotsky claims that learning occurs through interaction. Task-based learning is built on the premise that learning in the L2 occurs through interactional modifications; paired work and group work provide such an opportunity. The goal of this paper is to identify and explain the components of an effective language task. In order to accomplish this goal, a close examination of the interaction that occurs during the completion of a task from a Vygotskian perspective is presented.

### Task-Based Learning

Lee (2000) proposes the use of language tasks in the foreign language classroom in an attempt to provide an arena for real communication. He rejects the typical classroom definition of communication where the teacher questions and students answer. This type of interaction provides no linguistic support yielding long moments of unproductive and uncomfortable silence. Lee therefore redefines communication as the "expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning" (p. 1). He calls for a more social view of communication; "to assert that language learners are communicating is to assert that they are given opportunities to say what they mean and to work toward a mutual understanding with other interlocutors" (p. 26). In order for real communication to occur in the classroom, the instructor should abandon the need for full control and allow students to interact on their own.

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Lee's answer to the need for communication in the classroom is the language task performed in groups. According to Lee, "the purpose of language use is to accomplish some task rather than to practice any particular language forms" (p. 12). Therefore, language tasks give an opportunity to use language in a more purposeful and natural way. In addition, "by completing tasks, learners use language as a means to an end" (p. 31). Tasks allow students to accomplish something with their language skills, no matter how basic they are. Lee believes that

> task-based activities address the shortcomings inherent in a classroom dynamic born out of the restricted definition that *communication = question & answer*. Task-based activities focused on problem solving, consensus building and interdependent group functioning not only promote the active participation of each individual class member but can be constructed in such a way as to provide learners varying degrees of linguistic support. (p. 33)

Therefore, Lee believes that tasks will allow the classroom to be more productive, interactive and certainly communicative.

Lee claims that the design of the task is essential for its success. He insists that not all task-based group work is helpful; it cannot be gratuitous, and should not contain loose or unconnected information. He gives the following components for structuring a good task:

1) Identify a desired informational outcome.
2) Break down the topic into subtopics.
3) Create and sequence concrete tasks for the learners to do, for example, create lists, fill in charts, make tables
4) Build in linguistic support, either lexical or grammatical or both. (pp. 35-36)

Thus the well-organized task encourages extended discourse in real-time on a certain topic with an information gap. Carefully structured tasks will encourage and support communication.

**Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning**

Lee briefly makes a reference to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory; indeed there are many components of Vygotsky's model of learning which are relevant to the discussion of task-based learning. Sociocultural theory is not unknown in the field of second language acquisition; there exist many direct and useful applications of the theory to the present discussion.

***Learning Through Interaction***

Vygotsky claims that learning occurs through interaction. According to Lantolf, (forthcoming) "sociocultural theory argues that while separate, thinking and speaking are tightly interrelated in a dialectic unity in which publicly derived speech completes privately initiated thought." In other words, social interaction leads to individual development. Therefore, group activities not only necessarily

encourage learning but provide a context for the indispensable element of interaction.

***Activity Theory***

Activity theory claims that motivation determines the realization of any task. Coughlin and Duff (1994) propose that the same task does not imply the same activity on the part of participants. They provide the useful distinctions between *task*, which is a behavioral blueprint, and *activity*, which is the behavior produced when an individual or group performs a task. They point out that

> participants have their own objectives, and act according to these and the researchers' objectives, all of which are negotiated. . . over the course of the interaction. Furthermore, activities have no inherent parameters or boundaries, except those imposed by the task and by the interpretations and expectations of the individuals involved in a given task. In a language-based activity, constraints on task performance might include the level of knowledge (cultural, linguistic) shared by the interactants, or the time and interest they are willing, or able, to invest in order to complete the task at hand. (p. 175)

Rogoff (1990) also points out that activities are interpreted and carried out in accordance with goals. Therefore, meaning and purpose are central in defining an activity. Activity theory thus may shed light on the implementation and evaluation of the success of tasks in the second language classroom.

***Mediation***

Another related element relevant to this discussion is the theory of mediation. In sociocultural theory, it is believed that the mind uses tools to mediate the world. An important method of mediation is talk. In order to regulate a task, students mediate the activity through speech. Anton and DiCamilla (1998) point out that the L1 is an important tool in mediation for second language learners. Therefore, the L1 is not to be feared in the L2 classroom. Indeed it may be constructively manipulated in certain contexts to encourage learning. Additionally, Brooks and Donato (1994) point out that "what might appear on the surface as non-relevant task talk is in fact mediating the participants' control over the language and procedures of the task, each other, and ultimately the self" (p. 271). The acts of mediation and regulation therefore serve as an important step toward learning.

**Tasks and Sociocultural Theory**

Studies that examine the compatibility of task-based learning and concepts of sociocultural theory make an important contribution to understanding how theory has practical application in the classroom. Brooks and Donato (1994) looked at tasks from a Vygotskian perspective and concluded that a language task is a cognitive activity, thereby justifying the application and relevance of Vygotsky in the present discussion. They point to the belief that tasks, rather than being ex-

ternally defined, "are in fact internally constructed through the moment-to-moment verbal interactions of the learners during actual task performance" (p. 272). Therefore, students need to be given freedom in interaction so that they are able to regulate their own activity. This idea is very compatible with the beliefs of Lee who argues for the need to give learners control of their learning. It has been shown that students need to and will successfully regulate their learning under the right circumstances. Through interaction, they will justify and redefine the task, scaffold and communicate.

## THE STUDY

### Instrument

The researcher created a language task based on the criteria as proposed by Lee including a goal, topics and subtopics, sequenced tasks and linguistic support (See Appendices A and B). The task focused on a particular grammatical point of French, the *passé composé*, or the compound past. The goal and topic included discussion, comparison and categorization of activities of the class from the previous weekend. At the end of the discussion, the students were supposed to be able to report to the class whether their partner was "intellectual" "sporty" or "inactive" according to the kinds of activities they did. The task also contained a nice progression from input to output, including a related assignment for the next day.

### Subjects

The subjects were 23 students of first semester French including 18 women and five men. These students had been doing similarly structured tasks throughout the semester. The students preformed the task in eight self-selected groups of two, three, or four. In most cases, the groups were of the same composition as many informal daily exercises.

### Procedure

Each group of students recorded themselves for the entirety of the task. There were no specific instructions given on how to carry out the task (that is, the language used, the kinds of answers produced, the truth value involved, separate vs. group work etc.) except the written instructions. The in-class instructions by the researcher were paraphrases of the instructions on the worksheet. The researcher moderated the task entirely in French except while addressing individual group questions. The researcher did control movement from section to section by check-ups and further instructions. The total time for this task was approximately 20+ minutes.

## TASK INTERPRETATION: ONE TASK, EIGHT (OR 23!) ACTIVITIES

The discussion that follows consists of a comparison of group interaction that occurred during completion of the task. The interpretation of the task is defined by the approaches taken for completion of the task. Each group had a different approach to the task, yet there were several common

themes and methods that were apparent in the interactions. Relevant components of sociocultural theory are incorporated where appropriate.

**Structure of Group Interaction**

An important element of task interpretation is how students organized their interaction. There appeared to be four major ways for groups to structure their interaction, and these are treated in the following subsections. It is important to note that if a group interaction needed adjustment, groups easily adopted a new way to interact. However, a single type of organization usually remained as a common element throughout the task.

***Leader and Followers***

A few groups organized their interaction along the lines of leader and followers.

Such an interaction, if present, was found in groups with more than two students. In the following interaction, K served as the leader, and M and E were involved followers.

Example 1

K: Elle a fait de l'aérobique, that would be sporty

E: [sportif]

K: [sportif] for aerobics. Elle a fini un livre, that would be intellectual, reading. Regarding the television, that would be couch potatoey

M: inactive

—

K: Elle a appris quelques phrases en italien. Okay, be intellectual I suppose

M: Yeah

***Turn-Taking***

Another type of organization may be labeled turn-taking. In this type of interaction, students created a neat division of labor and interacted by answering every other question. The following interaction exemplifies this sort of interaction; T and C shared the work.

Example 2

C: Um, elle a fait de l'aérobique, uh sportif

T: Elle a fini un livre, uh, intellectuel

C: Okay, elle a regardé la télé, unless she was watching some nature show or something, it's probably inactive

T: Um, elle a perdu son chien...sportif

***Cooperative Production***

The most common type of interaction was cooperative production where students completed almost every aspect of the interaction together. They constantly were engaged in negotiation of form and meaning in order to complete the task. For instance, in Part Two of the task, it was quite common for a group to compile the same activities for the entire group since they had developed them together. This type of organization is illustrated by Examples 3 and 4.

Example 3

M: We need to do something active.

Example 4

D: What else did we do this weekend?

***Individual Production***

A final common type of interaction was individual production marked by students producing many forms and coming to conclusions on their own when interaction was not required. The interaction between B and S typifies this category; there were moments of silence during the activity when they were self-regulating and completing individual work.

**Task Regulation**

This section examines the tools used by students in order to regulate the task given to them. These tools, used in varying proportions by the groups, served in important ways to regulate, modify, and complete the task.

***Meta-Task Talk***

A significant amount of time and effort in completing a task involved talking about the task. Groups discussed the goals and redefined the instructions of the task in order to make them internally relevant. Example 5 portrays the redefinition of instructions. It is important to note that this was done in English and in K's own words.

Example 5

K: Okay, all right. So we're deciding if these activities are sporty, intellectual or...inactive, couch potatoey things

Examples 6 and 7 reveal a commonplace and important discussion on discovering the grammatical point of concern in this task. The researcher did not explicitly point out in the instructions that the grammatical focus was on the *passé composé*.

Example 6

J: This is in the past tense, right?

Example 7

J: Oh wait, we're supposed to be doing this in past participles

The next example shows how a student regulated the group's formation of the *passé composé*. She realized that there is an auxiliary verb in this verb formation, however it was provided as part of the built-in linguistic support.

Example 8

C: We don't have to even mess with it referring to the helping verb)

A final type of meta-task talk included re-organization of the approach to the task. In the next example, J told D that he needed to participate in Part Three of the task by asking her what she did last weekend.

Example 9

J: Ask me!

***Speech as Mediation***

The entire language activity was obviously an exercise in speech as mediation. What is interesting in the context of a second language task is the interaction between L1 and L2 in completion of the task. The amount of L2 used in the interaction varied across groups. However, all students were consistent in their use of English in cases of meta-task talk, meta-linguistic talk, and evaluative comments. English was an important tool in creating, understanding and completing the grammar, the topic and the task. The example below exemplifies the use of English to talk about French grammar. Student D wanted to know if the preposition *au* went in between the verb *jouer* and the object *tennis*.

Example 10

D: Is it *au* between *joue* and *tennis*?

This particular utterance is interesting since it would be incomprehensible to most people outside this context.

***Appeal to Other***

During completion of this task, there were many instances of students appealing to each other for grammatical or lexical support. This kind of appeal typifies learning through interaction. All participating members of this task were students of approximately the same level, yet they were able to problem-solve and produce on their own. Example 11 demonstrates a typical request for meta-linguistic discussion.

Example 11

J: How do you make this into a past participle?

Example 12 provides a glimpse into the linguistic world of a first year French student. A translation of this sentence would be "The past participle of the French verb *travailler* is formed regularly, right?"

Example 12

J: It's just a normal verb *travailler*, right?

It is important to note that these appeals were acknowledged and subsequently resolved in the course of the interaction.

***Scaffolding***

In the group interactions, there were many instances of scaffolding, where students would negotiate meaning and form in order to come up with the right answer. The fascinating aspect of scaffolding is that students together were able to formulate an answer that none of them knew at the onset. This type of interaction allows a close-up view of the Zone of Proximal Development discussed in sociocultural theory. Students were learning to master the *passé composé* through communicative negotiation with their partners. Example 13 provides an excellent view of scaffolding as students K, E and M together came to an acceptable answer

by questioning, evaluating, and interacting.

Example 13

K: Elle a perdu son chien

E: Sportif? that if playing with your dog

K: Oh, playing with your dog, that would be [sportif]

E: [Or] what does perdre mean?

M: perdu

E: perdu?

K: I don't know

E: Something your dog

M: I'll look it up...to lose?

K: losing your dog?

M: Well, I guess

K: Are you sure chien is dog?

E: Yeah

K: Losing your dog, I don't know

E: Losing your dog is a sport. Dog, chien.

K: Losing your dog is a sport, FINDING your dog is a sport

M: perdu

E: Losing is too

K: All right, I'll put it down

In the above example, the students negotiated the form and meaning of the verb "perdre" as well as the noun "chien" in order to jointly come to a conclusion.

**Off-Task Talk**

There were many instances of "off-task" talk during its completion. However, it was always inspired by the content of the task itself and never lasted more than a few seconds. The ordered and productive design of the task required students to return to task in a short time. In Example 14, J and M were completing Part Two of the task.

Example 14

M: I went dancing.

J: You went dancing? Where did you go dancing?

M: Bob Popular's

In Example 15, C remarked on the inactive nature of his weekend while completing Part Four of the task.

Example 15

C: I would have said one active thing, but I didn't know how to say carried a T.V. all around campus.

T: Why did you carry a T.V. over campus?

C: We had this thing for a club I'm in...

**TASK EFFECTIVENESS: SUGGESTIONS FOR A DEFINITION**

The goal of this section is to discuss the elements of a task that may contribute to its effectiveness in the second language classroom. First the drawbacks of tasks will be ad-

dressed followed by a compilation of potential advantages.

**Task Drawbacks**

There are, of course, many possible drawbacks to task-based learning which need to be addressed in order to assess their role in the classroom. Tasks take up a considerable amount of classtime. During this time, the instructor has certainly lost control of the classroom interaction. Therefore, wrong answers and conclusions may be formulated and believed. There also appears to be a considerable amount of L1 used in the lengthy interaction. In addition, the group task activity may promote "off-task" talk. These objections are not without merit, however, the time spent allowing students to negotiate meaning and interaction, according to Vygotsky, represent an essential component of cognition which is necessary for language acquisition.

**Form and Meaning**

This task displays an interdependence of form and meaning built into the task. Students were forced to manipulate the *passé composé* and then evaluate it. By the design of this task, it was impossible to only focus on form without attention to meaning. The next example shows an evaluation of meaning after proper production of the form by the question proposed by T and the humorous response by C.

Example 16

T: J'ai mangé... inactif?

C: Inactive unless you were shoveling it in your mouth

**Communication**

New information was shared with the entirety of the class. By design of the task, students were forced to communicate in order to be able to comment on the weekend of their partners. Most of the students were classified as inactive by their partners. The communicative value of the *passé composé* was also reinforced since students had to describe what they did.

Example 17

T: We did all inactive things

**Activity Construction**

This task allowed students the freedom to interpret the activity according to their own needs and motivations. There is a delicate balance to be found between providing enough support and direction for interaction and conversely, enough freedom to create a unique learning situation. The question arises, why did students structure the activity as they did? It appears that students understood their own needs and worked accordingly. For example, students who had not yet internalized the formation of the *passé composé* engaged in much more interactive meta-linguistic discussions on form than those who were more self-regulated.

**Learning Through Interaction**

Scaffolding was an important aspect of the interaction during this task. In fact, the design of the task en-

couraged scaffolding by peers. In this activity, there were many lexical realizations as well as understandings of grammatical forms prompted by the interactive demands.

**Later Success**

Does the type of interaction predict later success? A certain type of interaction did not appear to correlate with later success. However, this is not to say that how a task is approached doesn't affect later success. Negotiation of form and meaning and meta-linguistic talk are important aspects of internalizing language. In addition, English appears to be a help rather than a hindrance for later success. The follow-up homework highlighted the general success of the task. Students reacted to the in-class task and then they revealed their level of mastery of the *passé composé*. The task created an opportunity for communicative homework as well.

**Class Morale**

The emotive clues indicated that the students enjoyed task-structured communication. During the interaction, there were many instances of laughter, varied intonation and evaluative remarks such as "oh, oh!". Most students became engaged in the interaction because they were talking about something relevant to their lives. It appears that they enjoy putting their partners into categories and comparing the categorization of the class. Consistent with the conclusions of Brooks and Donato (1994), it appears that "off-task talk" is natural. It enhances the experience and it imitates real communication. It would stifle natural tendencies if follow-up commentary were not permitted.

**CONCLUSION**

Would Vygotsky and Lee approve? Vygotsky would probably consider these tasks as a real-life application of mediated and interactional learning in the foreign language classroom. Students are given the opportunity to talk out formation and meaning. By interacting, they run into problems, issues and questions they would not have come upon on their own.

Do tasks do what they are supposed to do according to Lee? Lee provides a suggestion for classroom practice based on observations of the workings of the L2 classroom for which there is much theoretical support in Vygotsky's general theory of language. In the present study, there was indeed communication as defined by the "expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning" (p. 1). There are probably elements of the task not envisioned by Lee that played a major role in their realization. Use of L1 in a supposed L2 language task was widespread, but English was used purposefully in carrying out expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning. However, contrary to the vision of Lee, the language was used to accomplish a task and to practice forms. It seems unrealistic to not provide a form basis for any topic in a university foreign language classroom.

What makes a good task? What makes a task good? Sociocultural the-

ory would explain their success by the fact that students are able to create their own interaction by a carefully structured and ordered task that takes into account their need for linguistic support, their grammatical competence and interests. The bottom line is that in a language task there are many formal linguistic realizations, occasions for practice, fun, and communication. Students are given the opportunity to see relevance and authenticity of the language they are learning by means of communication.

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## APPENDIX A
## Sportif, intellectuel, ou inactif?

I. Voici les activités de votre prof le week-end passé. Avec un partenaire, classez les activités suivantes:

| | |
|---|---|
| elle a fait de l'aérobique | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| elle a fini un livre | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| elle a regardé la télé | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| elle a perdu son chien | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| elle a appris quelques phrases en italien | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |

Partagez vos réponses avec la classe. Comment est-ce que vous classez l'ensemble de ces activités?

II. Ajoutez quatre activités de votre week-end et indiquez la catégorie. Justifiez vos réponses.

| | |
|---|---|
| j'ai | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| j'ai | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| j'ai | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| j'ai | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |

III. Interviewez votre partenaire sur ses activités et puis indiquez la catégorie.
Modèle: *Qu'est-ce que tu as fait ce week-end?*
*J'ai joué aux cartes.*

| | |
|---|---|
| il/elle a | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| il/elle a | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| il/elle a | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |
| il/elle a | sportif.....intellectuel.....inactif |

IV. Est-ce que votre partenaire semble plutôt sportif(-ve), intellectuel(-le), ou inactif(-ve)?
Modèle: *Mon partenaire est plutôt sportif parce qu'il a joué au football samedi matin et il a fait du jogging dimanche après-midi.*

Partagez vos réponses avec la classe. Chacun met son partenaire dans une catégorie.

| sportif/sportive | intellectuel(-le) | inactif/inactive |
|---|---|---|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Quelle catégorie décrit le mieux le week-end passé de l'ensemble de la classe?

V. DEVOIRS pour demain

Est-ce que vous êtes d'accord avec votre partenaire? Ecrivez 6 phrases sur votre week-end passé.



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## APPENDIX B
## Sporty, Intellectual, or Inactive?

I. Here are the activities of your teacher last weekend. With a partner, classify the following activities:

| | |
|---|---|
| she did aerobics | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| she finished a book | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| she watched television | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| she lost her dog | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| she learned a few phrases in Italian | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |

Share your answers with the class. How did you classify most of these activities?

II. Add four activities from your weekend and indicate the category. Justify your responses.

| | |
|---|---|
| I | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| I | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| I | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| I | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |

III. Interview your partner about his/her activities and then indicate the category.
Model: *What did you do this weekend?*
*I played cards.*

| | |
|---|---|
| he/she | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| he/she | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| he/she | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |
| he/she | sporty.....intellectual.....inactive |

IV. Does your partner seem more sporty, intellectual or inactive?
Model: *My partner is more sporty because he played football Saturday morning and he went jogging Sunday afternoon.*

Share your responses with the class. Each person should put his/her partner in a category.

| sporty | intellectual | inactive |
|---|---|---|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Which category best describes the class as a whole?

V. HOMEWORK for tomorrow
Do you agree with your partner? Write 6 sentences about last weekend.

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# *Envisioning a Standards-Based Methods Course: Preparing Second Language Educators for the 21st Century**

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*This article envisions what a standards-based second language methods course might be. In exploring the possibilities, the author presents a description of a current model for pre-service training, generalizations gleaned from a study of a second language methods syllabi archive, and an analysis of and reflection upon a particular second language methods course. The article concludes with suggestions for pre-service training for second language educators.*

## INTRODUCTION

The beginning of a new century encourages reflection on recent accomplishments and on the challenges that lie ahead. During the past two decades, accomplishments in second language education have been impressive. Initiatives in the 1980s provided guidelines for measuring proficiency in a second language (*ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines*, 1986). Collaborative efforts in the 1990s articulated a unified vision for the profession by establishing a national set of standards and a set of student performance guidelines (*Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century*, 1996). These accomplishments give direction to current efforts by state boards of education and local school districts to promote the development of second language skills and knowledge needed in the new century. These same accomplishments also pose new challenges for second language educators. One crucial challenge centers on determining the knowledge base and competencies required to develop and to carry out standards-based second language instruction.

Current research on teacher education supports a reflective model for designing pre-service development (Schon, 1987; Wallace, 1991; Hudelson and Faltis, 1993; Kassen and Higgins, 1997). The reflective model characterizes professional development as

> the result of the interaction of received knowledge, a field's collective body of information from research, theory and conventional wisdom, and experiential knowledge, which includes both practice and conscious reflection on that practice. (Kassen and Higgins, 1997, p. 268)

The North Central Regional Education Laboratory's (NCREL's) research-based framework outlines the necessary components of the reflective model. These include

> building a knowledge base, observing models and examples, reflecting on practice, changing practice, and gaining and sharing expertise. (Cited in Kassen and Higgins, 1997, p. 268)

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Key to this model of pre-service training are "repeated cycles of practice and informed critical reflection" (p. 265).

Over the past few years, considerable discussion has centered on the knowledge and skill base needed to effectively carry out standards-based second language instruction. In the summer 1998 issue of the *ACTFL Newsletter*, Glisan and Phillips outline suggested goals for second language teacher preparation. Their summary incorporates ideas gleaned from the National Board for Professional Teacher Standards (1994), the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996), and research studies in teacher education (Hudelson and Faltes, 1993; Schrier, 1993). These goals encompass desired knowledge bases, skills, and characteristics of second language teachers. The knowledge bases and skills include a high degree of proficiency in the language to be taught, an appropriate level of knowledge of the target culture(s), knowledge of current research on second language acquisition, understanding of and skill in delivering communicative language teaching methods, and knowledge and ability to effectively integrate technology in second language instruction.

The characteristics entail a commitment to continued professional development, a positive attitude toward student learning, a dedication to the role of manager and monitor of learning, a devotion to analysis and reflection on the effectiveness of one's teaching, and a collaborative orientation to teaching and the profession. This summary serves as a starting point for envisioning a model for standards-oriented second language methodology course.

## A Profile Of Second Language Methods Courses

"FLTeach"(www.cortland.edu/flteach/syllabi/) contains an archive of foreign-language methods course syllabi. A comparative study of the goals and class activities described in a selected group of eight syllabi that represent different regions around the country provides a useful profile. Five of the methods courses are located in either colleges of arts and sciences or in schools of humanities. Three are housed in schools of education. The course goals shared by all of the instructors include

- An understanding of the second language teaching/learn-ing process
- Effective techniques for teaching and evaluating the progress of second language learners
- Familiarity with multiple resources to enhance second language learning
- An introduction to technology and hands-on practice
- Familiarity with second language teaching approaches

- An understanding of how to integrate culture in the foreign language curriculum

In addition, at least half of the instructors also covered the following goals:

- Familiarity with the national standards
- Development of a picture file

These goals form a portrait of the current conventional wisdom regarding second language teacher preparation.

Comparisons of the variety of activities that exist on the syllabi provide further insights into the nature of experiences provided pre-service teachers by the second language methods course. Seven of the eight instructors require students to complete supplementary readings, to write lesson plans, to create instructional activities and to participate in class discussions. Six assign oral presentations, final exams, and the creation of rubrics and evaluation instruments. Four include critiques of journal articles, picture files, peer-teaching, and a file of supplementary materials. Three listed web board participation, a series of three- to five-page papers, use of a list serve and textbook evaluation. These seem to constitute common pre-service in-class activities.

The complete set of assigned activities displays additional alternatives. A number of these activities relate to the use of technology. Other activities seem to relate to making connections to research and conventional wisdom. These assignments pay tribute to the dedication and resourcefulness of second language methods instructors as they endeavor to facilitate professional development in the areas of expertise outlined in the first part of this article. They also provide a wider repertoire for later consideration as the process of envisioning continues.

The next step in the envisioning process involves examining a particular methods syllabus in light of the National Standards for foreign language instruction and existing state standards for foreign language learners and for teacher certification. For this purpose, the author has chosen to use the syllabus from her fall 1999 methods course. In examining the syllabus, she has used three types of instruments. The first is a reflective self-evaluation of the course completed in spring 1999. The second is a course alignment grid prepared for this study. Finally, the author has included comments from student evaluations of the course over the past five years. The examination of the syllabus provides insights into the ways methods classes must adapt to provide pre-service experiences that promote the required knowledge base, skills, and desired characteristics of second language teachers.

In the reflective self-evaluation, the instructor described the methods course as "a challenging course to teach." First, it presents a challenge because it draws from several disciplines and relates them to professional practices. Second, the course requires constant updates and experimentation

due to advancements within the profession and in educational technology. As a result, the instructor made significant changes each year, which center on a few key issues that blend instructional concerns with issues raised in course evaluations. These issues include three interrelated concerns: providing a balance between theory and practice, prioritizing topics for inclusion in the course, and determining appropriate course requirements.

Maintaining a balance between theoretical discussion and hands-on practice permeates the literature on pre-service training (Savignon, 1997; Van Patten, 1998; McLaughlin, 1987). In order for pre-service teachers to practice informed critical reflection about their teaching, they need to acquire knowledge about the "who, what, where and how" of second language learning (Savignon, 1997). This includes knowledge about learner attributes, the development of morphological and syntactic features, the process of acquiring a second language, and the learning setting. Comments on student evaluations reflect considerable tension regarding the theory base. One student wrote

> I felt like a fish out of water because even though she was very available, so much of the material was new and hard for me to cognitively organize.

Another student commented

> I didn't enjoy the first three chapters [of the textbook] so much, too theoretical.

These statements encapsulate the difficulties and reticence exhibited by pre-service teachers when they are confronted with the knowledge base related to second language instruction in the methods course.

Prioritizing topics for inclusion in the second language methods course requires careful deliberation and curricular planning. Decisions require an analysis of the overall pre-service program to determine which topics constitute the exclusive venue of the second language methods course and which ones need to be recycled within the context of second language teaching. A related concern entails adaptation or substitution when instructors perceive deficiencies in skill development or if state standards are not being met. Student course evaluations provide one source of information. For example, one student commented

> It was nice to have an education course that actually taught how to make a lesson plan.

Another student added

> She [instructor] expects a lot of details that I hadn't previously thought of. I am glad to see this because I need to know this and should be able to present, in detail the tasks that I will need my students to perform.

Field supervision and mentoring opportunities further corroborate the importance of certain topics.

The last of the interrelated issues outlined in the self-evaluation

entails determining course requirements. Each year some mention of the workload appears in the student evaluations. The following comments are representative:

> The instruction was good and I feel that I learned the essentials for teaching a foreign language, I just really think too much homework is given.

> Now that the course is almost over, I am glad to have mastered the workload, but during the course I sometimes wished we had less assignments.

This aspect of the course has undergone the most adaptation over the past five years, including both reduction in topics, the development of on-line resources, and change in the types of assignments required.

A final issue explored in the self-evaluation relates to preparing pre-service teachers to integrate technology in second language instruction. As Kassen and Higgins (1997) attest, providing pre-service training in instructional technology is complicated by the diversity and complexity of educational settings. In addition, students bring varying degrees of familiarity and competency with educational technology. Student comments on evaluations identify the sessions devoted to technology among the positive aspects of the course. For example, one student commented that

> the video and CD ROM section was very interesting.
> I enjoyed learning about this material.

Another student added

> I gained strengths in areas I had been weak before (e.g. using the internet, using PowerPoint).

The instructor continues to expand and update these sessions. Still, determining what background knowledge and what skills will serve pre-service teachers best remains problematic.

In response to the issues raised by the self-evaluation and the students' course evaluations, the author looked for additional resources for course evaluation. Driscoll (1998) provides a useful instrument, the course alignment grid. The purpose of the grid involves aligning and analyzing all class activities and assignments that meet each course objective. Driscoll provides examples of course alignment grids to be completed by both the instructor and the students. In addition, she outlines how grids can be used for course and program evaluation. For the purpose of this discussion, the instructor has adapted the grids appropriately to align all class activities and assignments with the state standards for teacher certification (see Appendix). The resulting charts serve to delineate with more precision and clarity the types of pre-service experiences the methods course provides.

Chart 1 illustrates the standards addressed by the first five class sessions, which focus on the theoretical background knowledge. These sessions include an historical overview of

Chart 1. Standards Addressed by First Five Class Sessions

| | Standards (See Appendix) | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Class activities and assignments | S-1 | S-2 | S-3 | S-4 | S-5 | S-6 | S-7 | S-8 | S-9 | S-10 |
| Session 1: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Session 2: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Web board activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Session 3: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Web board activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Session 4: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Session 5: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | | | | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | X | X | | | | | | | |
| Assignment I | | | | | | | | | | |

second language education in the United States, an introduction to proficiency and the standards, and a discussion of second language acquisition theories and teaching methodologies.

In early class sessions lecture and discussion predominate. Small-group activities entail organizing facts and comparing theories about different aspects of second language learning. For example, during the second session students complete a chart to show what components of language ability are common to the definitions of communicative competence, com-

municative language ability, and proficiency (Omaggio-Hadley, 1993, p. 35). Some activities, such as, reading descriptions of learners' language ability and determine the proficiency level of each learner apply theory directly to instructional concerns (Omaggio-Hadley, 1993, p. 35).

Most homework assignments include readings, workbook questions and web-board assignments. These out-of-class assignments also center on acquiring the necessary theoretical knowledge to guide instructional planning. The first truly practice-centered assignment occurs following session five. For this assignment, students opt to design a listening activity with a visual aid, to describe five activities that could be done with the same listening material, or to design in-class activities to go with an authentic reading (Omaggio-Hadley, 1993, p. 223). During the first five sessions, pre-service teachers become comfortable with the terminology of second language acquisition and become knowledgeable about the "what" and the "how" of second language acquisition (Savignon, 1997). As one student wrote on the course evaluation: "You were able to listen to us and tie our thoughts into the lesson." The sessions provide knowledge needed to analyze the effectiveness of instruction and instill the values of discussion and collaboration.

Chart 2 displays the activities and assignments for sessions six through ten. These sessions are as follows: discussing accuracy, developing listening and reading skills, developing speaking skills, developing writing skills, and developing cultural awareness. Four of the five sessions include small group activities. These activities range from matching listening and reading skills to proficiency levels to designing activities to meet one of the national standards to completing a textbook evaluation. Three sessions involve homework assignments requiring students to design instructional activities or a detailed lesson plan with activities, resources and evaluative procedures. As the pre-service teachers apply their theoretical knowledge to develop instructional skills, they also utilize their skill in under standing recordings, reading texts and writing materials in the target language. They also employ their knowledge of the target culture(s). Furthermore, opportunities arise to make use of the target language to further knowledge of other disciplines.

Through class activities and homework assignments, pre-service teachers continue to develop their understanding of the "what" and "how" of second language acquisition (Savignon, 1997). At the same time, they develop expertise in designing activities for second language learners. Finally, these activities develop an awareness of their role as manager and monitor of learning.

Chart 3 delineates how the activities and assignments for the last five sessions relate to the state standards. The topics treated in these sessions include test development, the integration of technology, and the process of becoming educators.

Chart 2. Standards Addressed by Second Five Class Sessions

| | Standards (See Appendix) | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Class activities and assignments | S-1 | S-2 | S-3 | S-4 | S-5 | S-6 | S-7 | S-8 | S-9 | S-10 |
| Session 6: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | X | X | | | | | | | (X) | |
| Textbook reading | X | X | | | X | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Assignment II | X | X | X | | | | | | (X) | |
| Session 7: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | X | X | X | | | | | | | |
| Midterm Exam | X | X | | | | | | | X | |
| Session 8: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | | | | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | X | | X | X | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Lesson Plan I | X | X | X | X | (X) | | | | | |
| Session 9: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | X | | X | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | X | | X | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | | X | | X | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | X | | X | | | | | | |
| Web board activity | | | | | X | | | | | |
| Session 10: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | | | | | X | | | | | |
| Discussion | | | | | X | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | | | | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | | | | | | | | | | |
| Assignment III | | | | X | | | | | X | |

Chart 3. Standards Addressed by Last Five Class Sessions

| | Standards | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Class Activities and Assignments | S-1 | S-2 | S-3 | S-4 | S-5 | S-6 | S-7 | S-8 | S-9 | S-10 |
| Session 11: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | | X | X | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| Software Evalua- | X | X | | | | | | | | |
| tion | X | X | X | | | | | | | |
| Textbook reading | X | X | X | | | | | | | |
| Workbook activity | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Web board activity | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lesson Plan II | X | X | X | X | (X) | | | | (X) | |
| Session 12: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lecture | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Discussion | X | | | | | | | | | |
| In-class activity | | | | | | | | | | |
| Supplementary readings | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Observation notes | X | | | | | | | | | |
| Session 13: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lec- | X | | X | X | | | | | | |
| ture/Demonstratio | X | | X | X | | | | | | |
| n | X | | X | X | (X) | | | | | |
| Discussion | | | | | | X | | | X | |
| In-class activity | | | | | | | | | | |
| Electronic Search | | | | | | | | | | |
| Web-based tutorial | | | | | | | | | | |
| Session 14: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Presentations | X | X | X | (X) | X | (X) | | | X | |
| Discussion | X | X | X | (X) | X | | | | X | |
| Teaching unit | X | X | X | X | X | X | | | X | |
| Power Point | X | | X | X | (X) | | | | | |
| Session 15: | | | | | | | | | | |
| Web-based activity | | | | | X | | | | X | |
| Discussion | (X) | | | | (X) | | | | | |
| Final Exam | X | | X | X | X | | | | X | |

Half of the class time for sessions eleven through thirteen centers on hands-on practice with technology. Students preview and evaluate software, conduct electronic searches, use PowerPoint to prepare a presentation, and utilize "Filamentality" (www.kn.pacbell.com/wired/fil) to create a web-based activity. While students engage in these activities, they utilize

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the knowledge and skills described in at least three of the standards. For the projects and final exam, students employ knowledge from five to seven standards. In addition, students work collaboratively and share information during the hands-on sessions. The oral presentations of the final project, a teaching unit, are conducted like teacher in-service workshops. These experiences build an awareness of the importance of professional development, collaboration and dedication to the role of manager and monitor of learning.

The course alignment grid provides a clear, concise profile of the methods course. The resulting profile sheds light on both the curricular concerns of the instructor and the certification requirements of the state. For example, the charts trace a progression towards practice-centered activities in later stages. Student comments on evaluations confirm this impression. In addition, the charts record an increase in activities requiring students to employ a wider spectrum of the recommended knowledge and skill areas.

The profile also gives credence to issues of choosing course topics and determining course requirements. The state content standards for foreign language teachers do not include knowledge of and skills in classroom management, a topic previously included in the second language methods syllabus. Since the necessary knowledge and skills regarding classroom management are addressed in courses and fieldwork required by the School of Education, other knowledge required by the state content standards, such as, career opportunities for speakers of a second language can be incorporated in the methods course outline.

Since the course prepares students to teach German, French and Spanish, goals two through eight can only be addressed incidentally. Students can use their knowledge and skills with the target language as they gather and evaluate authentic materials to be used for instructional purposes. The course can only include this type of practice, however, in small group activities or in out-of-class assignments.

Inferences drawn from the course grid and from a thorough study of national and state standards documents provide a solid base for envisioning course content for the methods course. In the case of Illinois, for example, the knowledge base provided primarily by the second language methods course centers on four main areas. First, the second language methods course is the only resource for obtaining the collective body of information on second language acquisition research as applied to classroom learning. Second, the course remains the principal venue for providing models for cultural studies and strategies for developing cultural awareness in classroom lessons.

In addition, the methods course seems the most logical site for preservice teachers to address directly ways to learn about career options for speakers of more than one language. Finally, the Illinois State Board of Education Content-Area Standards for

Educators (2000) require that teachers in all content areas

> apply technologies that support instruction in their grade level and subject areas. He or she must plan and deliver instructional units that integrate a variety of software, applications, and learning tools. Lessons developed must reflect effective grouping and assessment strategies for diverse populations (p. 261).

The national standards also require teachers to manage and monitor such activities as discussion of

> topics from other school subjects in the target language, including political and historical concepts, worldwide health issues, and environmental concerns (p. 51).

The ability to fulfill these mandates requires training from content area specialists who are familiar with the features and capabilities of technological tools and applications that facilitate second language acquisition.

## CONCLUSIONS

The meaningfulness of experiences afforded by the second language methods course depends on the structure of the overall pre-service program. Newman (1997) posits that teacher education courses should be problem-based and include action research components. To achieve this change, she recommends increased practica with classroom teachers as mentors, collaborative student projects, independent study modules, and faculty involvement as members of inquiry teams. Russell (1999) adds that early field placements and discussions of experiences in the field provide "significant personal experience of teaching" (p. 9). This personal experience helps pre-service teachers "see the significance of theory both for interpreting experience and for redirecting" their teaching (p. 10). Furthermore, Kosnik (1999) found that action research projects increased pre-service teachers' understanding of the role of the teacher and encouraged effective strategies like collaboration, informed critical reflection and devotion to continued professional development. Finally, Newman (1997) observes that since the school of education faculty is unable to cover all traditional high school subject matters, collaboration across university units becomes crucial. Russell (1999) concurs that liaison roles are key to successful pre-service training. In order to support standards-based professional development, he believes that the liaison role will expand and become more complex. The challenge of adapting and restructuring the methods course will remain an important element in this new complex role.

Within this context of "repeated cycles of practice and critical reflection" (Kassen and Higgens, 1997, p.265), the second language methods course plays a pivotal role. The course serves as a model for continued professional development and informed, reflective practice. Class activities and course assignments blend devotion to analysis and collaborative exploration of pedagogical issues, practice in

managing and monitoring learning, and reflection on the effectiveness of one's teaching. These kinds of experiences are paramount for developing the skill to "translate" (Van Patten 1998) theory into practice and to hone instructional skills that meet "the tests of practicality, personal relevance, and effective results" (Zéphir, 2000).

Kassen and Higgins (1997) provide a general framework for translating theory into practice in regard to pre-service technology training. These scholars posit that the development of knowledge and skills related to technology integration depend on

> establishing a comfort level with technology; integrating technology in the curriculum; and developing the critical skills to use technology effectively (264).

They suggest following the North Central Regional Education Laboratory's research-based framework, which incorporates the necessary components of a reflective model. Throughout the training, in-class activities and out-of-class assignments require students to engage in hands-on practice and critical reflection.

Ideas for implementing this component of the foreign language methods class can be drawn from the syllabi archive mentioned earlier in this study (FLTeach www.cortland.edu/flteach/syllabi/). For example, LeLoup requires students to obtain an electronic mail account and the instructor uses electronic correspondence to disseminate information and assignments to the students. In addition, the students complete an on-line technology module and submit assignments via electronic mail. Kennedy provides a plethora of on-line resources for her students that include articles, a discussion board, and links to web sites. She combines these resources with related assignments that include subscription to a list serve, participation in an on-line chat room for educators and a collection of URLs. Morris includes peer-teaching assignments with technology and Bueno requires PowerPoint presentations, the creation of a web-based activity, and software evaluation.

Kassen's and Higgin's goals of comfort, knowledge, and skill in integrating technological resources can be extended to the other areas of knowledge and skills that second language teachers need. In the author's classes, pre-service teachers often feel overwhelmed by the terminology and concepts of second language acquisition. Moore (1996) found that twenty-three percent of teachers responding to a survey cited that they received inadequate training in regard to integrating culture in their classes. Van Patten (1998) discovered that many classroom teachers have misconceptions regarding communicative language teaching. Yet, these are the essential knowledge and skill areas for providing standards-based instruction. Designing a standards-based methods course entails creating an intricate curricular weave. The design should blend continued patterns of received and experiential knowledge that build comfort, skill, and informed critical

reflection to assure best practices in the second language classes of our nation's schools.

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## APPENDIX
## THE COMPETENT FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER

Standard 1: The competent foreign language teacher comprehends the processes involved in acquiring another language.

Standard 2: The competent foreign language teacher understands oral communication and interacts appropriately in the target language in various settings.

Standard 3: The competent foreign language teacher understands and creates written materials in the target language for a variety of purposes and audiences.

Standard 4: The competent foreign language teacher is able to use the target language to explain its structure in a manner understandable to a variety of learners.

Standard 5: The competent foreign language teacher understands manners, customs, and ranges of cultural expression of various target language societies.

Standard 6: The competent foreign language teacher demonstrates general knowledge of expressive forms (e.g., music, dance, folk art, visual art, drama and architecture) related to various target language societies.

Standard 7: The competent foreign language teacher understands representative types of literature and various media of target language societies.

Standard 8: The competent foreign language teacher understands the history, geography, social institutions, and contemporary events of various target language societies.

Standard 9: The competent foreign language teacher uses the target language to reinforce and further the knowledge of other disciplines.

Standard 10: The competent foreign language teacher uses the target language to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of a variety of career options.

# *Teachers' Beliefs About Language Learning and Teaching: A Cross-Cultural Comparison**

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*Because English will be included in the required curriculum of all of Taiwan's elementary schools in 2001, a better understanding of the beliefs held by prospective primary school English teachers' about language learning and teaching would be beneficial. To investigate those beliefs, a questionnaire was developed and administered to 68 participants in a training program. The results of the survey are presented here and compared with the beliefs of language teachers in the U.S. Implications for teacher education programs are discussed.*

## INTRODUCTION

English education in Taiwan is entering a critical period. In the year 2001, English will soon be included in the required curriculum and taught to fifth and sixth graders of all Taiwan's elementary schools. The extension of English programs to primary schools nationwide has put the issue of teacher education in the spotlight. In the past, Taiwan's research attention focused mainly on professional preparation and qualifications for English teachers at the secondary and tertiary levels, but in recent English teaching conferences and publications in Taiwan, several language educators have discussed issues of elementary-school-level English curriculum, teaching methodology, and material development and selection (e.g., Lin, 1999; Shih, 1999; Yu, 1999). Even so, few studies have been conducted on the affect aspect of prospective teachers, such as their attitudes, motivations, and beliefs.

Much of the current literature on teacher education suggests that teachers' beliefs and attitudes play an important role in their decision-making and teaching practice (Williams & Burden, 1997). According to Richardson (1996), *belief* refers to psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true. As Richards and Lockhart (1996) have indicated, teachers' actions reflect their knowledge and beliefs. Also, these teachers' knowledge and beliefs "provide the underlying framework or schema which guides the teachers' classroom actions" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 29). Pajares (1992), in reviewing the literature on teachers' beliefs, went further and concluded that teachers' beliefs had a greater influence than teachers' knowledge on their lesson planning, decision-making, and general classroom practice.

Johnson (1994) studied preservice ESL teacher's beliefs and found these beliefs about second language teaching were affected by prior experiences within formal language classrooms. Mok (1994) also indicated that teacher's beliefs about teaching were guided by their previous experience as a learner and as a teacher. Horwitz (1985) found that prospective foreign language teachers have

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many preconceived ideas about how languages are learned and how they should be taught. She pinpointed the possible interfering effect of these preconceived beliefs on prospective teachers' understanding and receptivity to the information and techniques presented in the teacher education program.

Because learners' beliefs are important determinants of their behavior, teacher's beliefs play a critical role in improving second language instruction. Uncovering these beliefs can contribute to an understanding of how to refine and improve teaching and learning in a school environment (Kleinsasser, 1993). An examination of these prospective primary school English teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching can also benefit the teacher trainer and trainees. This paper, therefore, focuses on the investigation of these prospective English teachers' beliefs about language learning and especially their beliefs about teaching English to children. In addition, comparisons of teachers' beliefs will be made between these Taiwanese prospective teachers with foreign language teachers in the U.S. for better understanding.

## Description of Study

### Subjects

A total of 68 subjects from a primary-school English teacher training program participated in the study. Among the 68 trainees (from two classes), there were 5 males (7%) and 63 females (93%). All the trainees had passed the English proficiency test given by the Language Testing and Teaching Center on behalf of the Ministry of Education. Their English oral proficiency was rated above Level 2. All of the subjects, therefore, waived the additional 240-hour language courses. Over two-thirds of the subjects (68%) had stayed in English-speaking countries for an average of 6.7 years. About two-thirds (66%) also had experience teaching English. To the question whether they had experience teaching English to children, 50 percent said yes, 49 percent said no, and one person did not answer.

### Instrument

A questionnaire was developed to survey the prospective English teachers' beliefs in five major areas: (1) child development, (2) teaching English to children, (3) teaching strategies and techniques, (4) the nature of language learning, and (5) self-efficacy and expectations. Some items were adopted or modified from Horwitz's Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1987). Other items were written by the author based on a literature review on teaching English to children (e.g., Dunn, 1983; Halliwell, 1992; Philips, 1993) and related fields (e.g., Berk, 1997; Brown, 1994).

In the questionnaire, the subjects were asked to read a statement, such as "It's better to use English from the first lesson." Then, the subjects decided if they (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree, or (5) strongly agree with the statement. Since the questionnaire was designed to assess pro-

spective English teachers' beliefs and opinions, it did not yield a composite score; rather, responses to the individual items revealed prospective teachers' views of language learning and teaching.

**Procedures**

The subjects completed the questionnaire during the first week of the training session. The questionnaire data was coded and keyed in to computer files. The data was then analyzed descriptively by calculating percentages and mean scores. In addition, the learning diaries of the subjects were collected and analyzed as supplementary information.

**RESULTS**

The section will discuss the results of the survey, which consist of four major areas: (1) general beliefs about child development, (2) general beliefs about language learning, (3) specific beliefs about teaching English to children, and (4) self-efficacy and expectation (See Appendix A). In the discussion below, the subjects' 1 and 2 responses to the Likert scale (Strongly Disagree and Disagree) are presented together, as are their 4 and 5 responses (Agree and Strongly Agree). This combination has been done in order to allow generalizations about overall trends in the subjects' responses.

**General Beliefs about Child Development**

The prospective teachers shared several similar beliefs about child development. For example, most (73%) agreed that children's first-language development is related to their second-language acquisition. This accords with the common belief that the degree to which children can use their first language to communicate will reflect on their ability to acquire the second language (Dunn, 1983). In addition, about two-thirds (66%) of the prospective teachers endorsed the concept of individual difference and agreed that young children have great individual differences in their cognitive development. They believed that individual children learn and react to school differently (97%). These beliefs were mentioned and discussed by several trainees when they wrote about the most important issues they considered in teaching English to children. Over three-quarters of the prospective teachers (79%) also agreed that boys and girls would develop at different rates and react in different ways.

These prospective teachers, however, thought differently about children's physical development. Fewer than one half (46%) agreed that children's muscular development might affect their ability to read, whereas 25% were neutral and 28% disagreed with the statement [1]. As Dunn stated in his book, *Beginning English with Young Children*, "Not only cognitive development but also physical development plays an important role in determining what activities are right for the young child" (Dunn, 1983, P. 14). It may be the case that, if teachers believe it is a part of natural development for children to have difficulty sitting still, then those teachers will

feel strongly that "classroom activities need to give children an opportunity to move around within the classroom." Among the respondents, 64% agreed, 21% were neutral, and 16% disagreed with the previous statement.

Adults and the society and culture in which the child lives can affect not only the child's development but also his or her success in learning a foreign language (Berk, 1997; Dunn, 1983). Many of the prospective teachers believed in the great influence of the children's parents, for 95% agreed that "if parents are interested in their children's achievement in English and show appreciation of their success, the children will be motivated." Also, 92% of the prospective teachers agreed that people in Taiwan feel that it is important to be able to speak English. This positive attitude toward English from most Taiwanese people might affect their children's English learning. Some subjects in this study believed in the teacher's influence, as 74% thought that "young children are eager to build up a relationship with their teacher." In view of the possible influence from local culture on the children as well as the majority of the imported ESL or English materials and textbooks available in the market, over one half (59%) of the respondents considered it would be unrealistic to expect young beginners in Taiwan to respond to material and activities in the classroom like an American, Australian, or English child of the same age, though 28% disagreed with the idea.

**General Beliefs about Language Learning**

Most of the prospective teachers (81%) believed that in learning English, younger is better. It is thus not surprising to find that 70% of the teachers agreed that it is best to learn English starting in primary school. Most teachers believed that children are different from adults in terms of learning foreign languages, for 84% of the respondents disagreed that children learn English the same way as the adults. About 59% agreed that anyone can learn to speak English well, while 29% neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. Only 12% disagreed.

As for the nature of learning a language, more than half (56%) believed that we acquire language knowledge by repeatedly understanding expressions in the language that are "a little beyond" our current level of competence, whereas 32% neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. Most subjects agreed that one "can't learn without practice" (94%), one learns English "through interacting with other people" (90%), one learns quickly when one understands (88%), and "entertainment will speed up the learning process" (81%). Only 29% agreed "there is a secret in learning English quickly," whereas 46% disagreed with the statement and 25% were neutral. A large majority (95%) rejected the statement that "we learn English only through the ears," and over three quarters (78%) also disagreed that "we don't have to memorize anything to learn English." These teachers also cared about students'

correctness in learning pronunciation, for 63% agreed that if beginning students were permitted to make errors in English pronunciation without correction, it would be difficult for them to correct those errors later on.

**Specific Beliefs about Teaching English to Children**

To teach English to children, these teachers generally agreed that it is necessary to teach about foreign culture (90%). They believed that spelling and grammar should not be the first subjects to teach (85%). Most of them agreed that the most important part of teaching children English is oral communication skills (79% agreed), not vocabulary (82% disagreed).

As to the importance of teaching other English skills to children, these teachers held varied views. For example, 43% agreed that pronunciation is the most important part of teaching children English, while 31% were neutral, and 26% disagreed with that statement. Listening comprehension was considered the most important component by 37% of the respondents, while 38% neither agreed nor disagreed and 25% disagreed with that statement. Only 46% agreed that sounds, words, and grammar should be taught together, whereas 18% were neutral and 35% disagreed with that statement.

The prospective teachers shared several specific beliefs about the way to teach English to children. The majority believed that children acquired language by taking part in activities (90%) and that letting the children use language to accomplish activities helps them learn (99%). Although games are popular in many children's private language schools in Taiwan, 96% of the prospective teachers believed that not all games are suitable for young beginners, and 80% believed that games are most useful if they consolidate language items. The prospective teachers were also positive about the use of multimedia (such as tapes, video tapes, CD ROM) to teach children English. Thus, 85% of the respondents agreed with its use in the primary classrooms. On the other hand, only half agreed that it is better to use English from the first lesson.

**Self-Efficacy and Expectation**

In general, the prospective teachers had strong motivations and high expectations of becoming good primary school English teachers. Many of them (95%, of which 63% indicated strong agreement) felt that they wanted to be a good primary school English teacher and considered teaching English in the primary school as "valuable" (92%) and "a good job" (50%). Although a large number of them (83%) rejected the idea that teaching English was or would be easy, most of them (82%) were confident in becoming good English teachers to children and 75% believed they could teach children English very well. About 82% felt comfortable with children and 79% said they liked children a lot. In addition, 62% believed that teaching English in the primary school was or would be "a lot of fun." These positive attitudes and beliefs toward themselves and teaching tasks reflected the enormous enthusiasm of

the prospective teachers in the beginning of the training program.

### Comparisons with Other Studies

Because few studies have examined teachers' beliefs about teaching English to children in particular, this paper will attempt to compare, in terms of similar belief items, the beliefs of the prospective teachers in this study with those of foreign language teachers in other studies, particularly Horwitz (1985), and Kern (1995).

#### Comparisons with Horwitz's Study Results

Horwitz (1985) used two instruments, the Foreign Language Survey (FLAS) and the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), to elicit prospective foreign language teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching. As details of the specific beliefs were not reported in the 1985 paper, this researcher made only a rough comparison and found three major similarities between the two groups of prospective teachers: First, Horwitz found that the prospective foreign language teachers in her methods class, like many other Americans, felt it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language. Similarly, in this study, most of the prospective Taiwanese elementary-school English teachers did not think that children learn English the same way as adults do (84%) and they believed that younger is better in learning English (81%). Moreover, Horwitz found her methods students consistently agreed that it was important "to listen and repeat a lot" and to practice in the language lab, while the prospective teachers in this study also were positive about the importance of practice and using multimedia for practice. Furthermore, the prospective teachers in Horwitz's method class generally felt strongly that it is the teacher's responsibility to motivate students, whereas a large number of the prospective teachers reported in their learning diaries that to motivate students and to develop their interest in learning English is one of the most important issues in teaching English to children.

While the prospective teachers in Horwitz's study commonly believed that the languages they were preparing to teach were relatively easy ones, only 4% of the prospective teachers in this study considered English as easy to teach in the primary schools. Most of them (83%) disagreed and felt English is not easy. This feeling might not just be due to the difficulty of the language they are to teach, but it might also be related to their great expectations of themselves and of the task of teaching English in the primary schools (see previous section on "self-efficacy and expectation"). Another explanation might be found from the learning diary entries of the prospective teachers' about the most important issues in teaching children English. Many teachers provided lists of various qualifications and requirements for a good primary school English teacher, which revealed these prospective teachers' ardent anticipation, and a little anxiety, toward becoming good primary English teachers.

**Comparisons with Kern's Study**

Kern (1995) studied the beliefs of 12 French instructors and 288 students beliefs about language learning in an American university setting. When Kern's results are compared with those of this study, especially in regard to teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, one can find three major similarities.

First, all instructors in Kern's study agreed that it is important to repeat and practice a lot, whereas 94% of the prospective teachers in this study thought that one cannot learn without practice. Eighty-four percent of the university instructors agreed that it is important to practice in the language laboratory while 85% of the prospective elementary-school English teachers felt that it is important to use multimedia (such as audiotapes, videotapes, and CD ROM) to teach children English.

Second, the majority of the university instructors rejected the statement that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words (92%) or grammar rules (83%), and the prospective teachers in this study held similar views. They disagreed with the statement that the most important part of teaching children is vocabulary (82%), and they felt spelling and grammar should not the first subject to teach (46%).

The third similarity between the beliefs of college instructors and the prospective elementary-school teachers concerns age and language learning. Most of the prospective teachers believed that, in learning English, younger is better (81%) and that it is best to learn English from primary school (70%), while 67% of the college instructors agreed that it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.

On the other hand, college instructors differed from the prospective elementary school English teachers in two respects. While 90% of the prospective teachers believed that it is necessary to teach foreign culture when teaching English, the college instructors were less enthusiastic about teaching culture. Only 25% felt that it is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language, while 58% were neutral and 17% disagreed. In addition, the college instructors were more relaxed about correcting students' mistakes, for only a fourth of them felt that, if a learner was allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it would be hard to get rid of those mistakes later on. Half of them disagreed with the statement and the remaining fourth neither agreed nor disagreed.

All of the college instructors disagreed with the idea that one should not say anything in the language until one can say it correctly. In contrast, the Taiwanese prospective teachers were more concerned with the students' English errors, especially in pronunciation. This belief is similar to that held by Taiwanese college students in previous studies (e.g., Yang, 1999). Over 80% of college students and 63% of the prospective teachers agreed that it would be difficult for beginning students to correct English

errors later on if they were permitted to make those errors early.

## Implications and Suggestions

### Limitations of the Study

This study used a questionnaire, mostly developed by the researcher (and instructor), to investigate beliefs about language learning and teaching held by the prospective primary-school English teachers in the training program. Owing to characteristics of retrospective self-reports, some information may be missing when reporting (Garner, 1988). In addition, these teachers' beliefs may change during and after the training session. It should also noted that the results are based on a small sample of the prospective teachers in the training program. Thus, the generalization of the results to other populations in different teaching contexts, such as high school or university level, may be limited.

### Suggestions for Future Research

This study has attempted to examine the prospective primary school English teachers' beliefs about their students' cognitive and physical development, about the nature of language learning, about the task of teaching English to children, and about themselves as primary-school English teachers. Further research could be conducted concerning the consistency between beliefs and actions. In addition, to examine the changes of beliefs held by the prospective teachers, a similar questionnaire could be administered at the end of the training program. It would be interesting to compare the differences between the two results.

To make further comparisons, the beliefs questionnaire used in this study could be administered to prospective English teachers in different contexts or to pre-service foreign language teachers in the United States.

### Instructional Implications

The results of this study have the following instructional implications:

1. ***Examining teachers' beliefs first.***

In discussing teacher education, there are no simple answers to the question of what makes a good teacher, so how can we know what makes a good primary-school English teacher? A helpful approach to answering the question, as suggested by Williams and Burden (1997), seems to lie within the area of teachers' beliefs. Williams and Burden indicated that teachers' beliefs about what learning is, whether implicit or explicit, "affect everything that they do in the classroom" (pp. 56-57). One prospective teacher echoed the same point in her learning diary:

> What we believe about how children acquire a [second/foreign] language will pretty much determine our attitude and approaches to teaching English to kids. And this belief will greatly contribute or do harm to under

> standing and flexibility in students' learning career and our teaching career.

Therefore, studies that focus on teachers' beliefs about learners, learning, and themselves and examine the consistency with which teachers' actions reflect what they claim to believe would provide helpful information to effective teaching. Informal examination of teachers' beliefs is also beneficial for language teachers themselves. As the same prospective teacher wrote in her learning diary,

> I believe our beliefs decide what we do and how we do it. . . . . I think a good way to examine our beliefs is to see if our beliefs have created understanding and inspired learning in the classroom, or, on the contrary, created misunderstanding, discouragement (on either side), or even worse.

Also, as Horwitz (1985) indicated, making the prospective teachers' belief system explicit is the first step in their development as foreign language teachers. Effort should, therefore, be made to assess the prospective teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching.

2. ***Reflecting on one's teaching critically.***

In this study, the prospective teachers' positive attitudes and their strong beliefs toward themselves and their teaching tasks were a welcome signs. They reflected the great enthusiasm and the sometime unrealistic expectations of most trainees in the beginning of the training program. Later in the training session, some of the prospective teachers became frustrated when they realized that, contrary to their expectations, some teaching methods would not work as well as they thought. They also discovered that, when they teach in primary schools, they might face strange teaching-learning environments and cultures that differ from their familiar English learning environments abroad or in the university. How to bridge the gap between their expectation and reality becomes an important issue for teacher educators and teachers-to-be to deal with.

On possible way to bridge the gap and to improve their future teaching practice is to have both the training instructors and the prospective teachers engage in a shared "multilevel process of action, monitoring, reflection, feedback and further action" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 55). During the process of critical reflection, prospective teachers need to learn to be "reflective practitioners" (Schon, 1983) who consistently generate questions and critically reflect on their teaching practices. In other words, prospective teachers should be aware of their belief systems and constantly monitor how far their actions—that is, teaching practices—reflect those beliefs or are in keeping with them. They may also adjust some of their previous beliefs if possible. This critical reflection can first be conducted between the training instructors and the prospective teachers during the training program and then

gradually carried on by the prospective teachers independently.

**3. Changing beliefs gradually.**

The next step would be to change these teachers' beliefs. This change should not be an impossible mission, because the beliefs are largely developed and learned, not genetically endowed. Researchers have offered suggestions on how to change beliefs, such as through implementing specific teacher education programs (e.g., Richardson, 1996; Pennington, 1989). The various beliefs revealed in this study also provided a good source of information for the training instructors. As suggested by Horwitz (1985), these teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching were greatly influenced by their previous learning experiences. As a consequence, the best way to deal with various views toward a certain teaching method is to help the prospective teachers move in developmental stages, not to directly contradict their deep-rooted beliefs. Moreover, some principles and guidelines on learner training can be applied to teacher training. Therefore, the prospective teachers were encouraged to discuss their views in the learning diaries (e.g., Yang, 1998). Related theories and concepts were later introduced in the training courses. As one prospective teacher suggested, "I guess the best thing we could do to make our beliefs related to teaching not so subjective is to base our beliefs as widely on knowledge, new information, and experience as possible."

In short, it is essential to examine language teachers' beliefs and reflect critically on the effectiveness of these beliefs based on teachers' actual teaching practices. Teacher education should pay attention to ineffectual beliefs of their prospective teachers and confront erroneous beliefs with new information and knowledge.

NOTE:

[1] The percentage has been rounded to nearest whole number. Thus, the percentage may not add up to 100%.

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## APPENDIX A
## THE RESPONSE (IN %) TO EACH ITEM IN THE BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING CHILDREN ENGLISH SURVEY

| No | Item Description | 1 [a] Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 Strongly Agree | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I | **Beliefs About Child Development** | | | | | | | |
| 12. | If parents are interested in their children's achievement in English and show appreciation of the success, the children will be motivated. | 0 [b] | 1 | 3 | 41 | 54 | 4.49 | 0.63 |
| 20. | Individual children learn and react to school differently. | 1 | 1 | 0 | 47 | 50 | 4.43 | 0.72 |
| 13. | People in Taiwan feel that it is important to be able to speak English. | 3 | 3 | 3 | 49 | 43 | 4.25 | 0.89 |
| 3. | Boys and girls develop at different rates and react in different ways. | 1 | 4 | 15 | 53 | 26 | 3.99 | 0.86 |
| 4. | Young children have great individual differences in their cognitive development. | 0 [c] | 12 | 21 | 41 | 25 | 3.88 | 1.14 |
| 9. | Young children are eager to build up a relationship with their teacher. | 0 | 10 | 16 | 52 | 22 | 3.85 | 0.89 |
| 17. | How children can use their first language to communicate is related to their ability to acquire the second language. | 4 | 4 | 18 | 63 | 10 | 3.71 | 0.88 |
| 8. | Classroom activities need to give children an opportunity to move around within the classroom. | 3 | 13 | 21 | 53 | 10 | 3.54 | 0.95 |
| 10. | It is not realistic to expect young beginners in Taiwan to respond to material and activities in the classroom like an American, Australian, or English child of the same age. | 7 [c] | 21 | 12 | 43 | 16 | 3.49 | 1.38 |
| 11. | Muscular development may affect a child's ability for reading. | 9 [c] | 19 | 25 | 40 | 6 | 3.24 | 1.29 |
| II | **General Beliefs About Language Learning** | | | | | | | |
| 31 | We can't learn without practice. | 1 | 1 | 3 | 28 | 66 | 4.56 | 0.76 |
| 38 | We learn English through interacting with other people. | 0 | 1 | 9 | 41 | 49 | 4.37 | 0.71 |
| 32 | Entertainment speeds up the learning process. | 0 [c] | 4 | 13 | 50 | 31 | 4.16 | 0.99 |

**APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)**

| No | Item Description | 1 [a] Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 Strongly Agree | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30 | In learning English, younger is better. | 0 | 4 | 15 | 43 | 38 | 4.15 | 0.83 |
| 33 | Learning takes place quickly when people understand. | 0 | 4 | 7 | 62 | 26 | 4.10 | 0.72 |
| 43 | Everyone can learn to speak English well. | 0 | 12 | 29 | 46 | 13 | 3.60 | 0.87 |
| 25 | If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English pronunciation without correction, it will be difficult for them to correct later on. | 6 | 18 | 13 | 37 | 26 | 3.60 | 1.22 |
| 5 | We acquire by understanding language that is "a little beyond" our current level of competence. | 3 | 9 | 32 | 50 | 6 | 3.47 | 0.85 |
| 24 | There is a secret in learning English quickly. | 9 | 37 | 25 | 22 | 7 | 2.82 | 1.11 |
| 28 | Children learn English the same way as the adults. | 22 [c] | 62 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 2.16 | 1.25 |
| 26 | We don't have to memorize anything to learn English. | 28 | 50 | 7 | 10 | 4 | 2.13 | 1.08 |
| 7 | We learn English only through the ears. | 66 | 29 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 1.44 | 0.80 |
| **III** | **Specific Beliefs about Teaching Children English** | | | | | | | |
| 39 | Let the children use language to accomplish something will help them learn. | 0 | 0 | 1 | 43 | 56 | 4.54 | 0.53 |
| 14 | Not all games are suitable for young beginners. | 1 [c] | 0 | 1 | 56 | 40 | 4.41 | 0.87 |
| 35 | It is necessary to teach about foreign culture when teaching English. | 0 | 3 | 7 | 53 | 37 | 4.24 | 0.71 |
| 2 | Children acquire language by taking part in activities. | 3 | 1 | 6 | 49 | 41 | 4.24 | 0.87 |
| 41 | Spelling and grammar should not be the first thing to teach. | 0 | 4 | 10 | 54 | 31 | 4.12 | 0.76 |
| 45 | It is important to use multi-media (such as tapes, video tapes, CD ROM) to teach children English. | 0 | 6 | 9 | 54 | 31 | 4.10 | 0.79 |
| 44 | Games are most useful if they consolidate language items. | 0 [c] | 6 | 13 | 56 | 24 | 4.06 | 0.99 |
| 42 | The most important part of teaching children English is oral communication skills. | 3 | 7 | 10 | 50 | 29 | 3.96 | 0.98 |
| 46 | It is best to learn English from primary school. | 0 | 9 | 22 | 49 | 21 | 3.81 | 0.87 |

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**TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)**

| No | Item Description | 1 [a] Strongly Disagree | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 Strongly Agree | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19 | It's better to use English from the first lesson. | 3 | 16 | 31 | 40 | 10 | 3.38 | 0.98 |
| 23 | Sounds, words, and grammar should be taught together, not separately. | 9 [c] | 26 | 18 | 31 | 15 | 3.25 | 1.42 |
| 40 | The most important part of teaching children English is pronunciation. | 4 | 22 | 31 | 31 | 12 | 3.24 | 1.07 |
| 36 | The most important part of teaching children English is listening comprehension. | 4 | 21 | 38 | 28 | 9 | 3.16 | 1.00 |
| 29 | The most important part of teaching children English is vocabulary. | 25 | 57 | 12 | 4 | 1 | 2.00 | 0.83 |
| **IV** | **Self-Efficacy And Expectation** | | | | | | | |
| 37 | I want to be a good primary school English teacher. | 0 | 0 | 4 | 32 | 63 | 4.59 | 0.58 |
| 16 | Teaching English in the primary school is valuable. | 0 | 0 | 9 | 46 | 46 | 4.37 | 0.64 |
| 22 | I am confident in becoming a good English teacher to children. | 0 | 3 | 15 | 53 | 29 | 4.09 | 0.75 |
| 15 | I am comfortable with children. | 1 | 3 | 13 | 54 | 28 | 4.04 | 0.82 |
| 34 | I like children a lot. | 0 | 1 | 19 | 54 | 25 | 4.03 | 0.71 |
| 18 | I believe I can teach children English very well. | 0 | 1 | 24 | 46 | 29 | 4.03 | 0.77 |
| 21 | Teaching English in the primary school is (or will be) a lot of fun. | 1 | 4 | 32 | 52 | 10 | 3.65 | 0.79 |
| 27 | Teaching English in primary school is a good job. | 0 | 9 | 41 | 38 | 12 | 3.53 | 0.82 |
| 6 | Teaching English in the primary school is (or will be) easy. | 34 | 49 | 13 | 1 | 3 | 1.91 | 0.89 |

Notes:

[a] 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither disagree nor agree, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree.

[b] The percentage has been rounded to nearest whole number.

[c] There is one person who did not answer this question (1%).

# *Foreign Language Methods Students' Beliefs About Language Learning and Teaching**

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*The present study is an attempt to further the work initiated by Horwitz (1985) on future foreign language teachers' preconceived ideas about language learning and teaching. Two surveys were administered at the beginning and the end of two foreign language methods courses taught at different universities. Quantitative data from these surveys and qualitative data from student belief statements are discussed. Conclusions drawn from this study point to the need for educators to continue to provide their students with opportunities to examine their tacit beliefs about how languages are learned and should be taught.*

## INTRODUCTION

How we, as teacher educators, view and define the process of learning to teach determines the type of instruction and experiences that our teacher-learners receive during their professional development. Such development has traditionally been conceptualized as transmission, that is, the combination of presentation and practice. For example, during methodology courses, language teachers are introduced to a "codified body of knowledge about language, language learning, and language teaching . . . [and] a range of teaching practices or methodologies" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 402).

A key component is missing from this conceptualization of learning to teach: the important role of the teacher-learners' beliefs. The teacher-learners who enter the methodology course do not come empty-handed; rather, they bring with them beliefs and knowledge that serve as powerful advance-organizers through which the knowledge and experiences gained during their professional development are evaluated and consequently accepted, reformulated, or rejected. Thus, the teacher-learners' beliefs are an essential component of the process of learning to teach. Teacher education programs, instead of focusing their attention on transmitting knowledge, must begin to help teacher-learners' recognize, articulate, and reflect upon the knowledge and beliefs they already possess. By having opportunities to reflect on their beliefs and practices, teacher-learners become empowered. In other words, teacher empowerment occurs when control, rather than being external to the teacher her or himself, comes from within as the teacher examines and questions her or his beliefs, intentions, understandings and practices:

> [T]eacher empowerment does not occur without reflection and the development of the means to express justifications. Without such empowerment, teachers may become victims of their personal biographies, systemic political demands, and

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> ecological conditions, rather than making use of them in developing and sustaining worthwhile and significant change (Richardson, 1990, p. 16).

Such empowerment is essential since the process of learning to teach does not begin and end with the methodology course, rather, it is a life-long process (Armaline & Hoover, 1989; Britzman, 1992; Richardson, 1990; Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

**Changing Paradigms in Teacher Education**

The teaching profession is constantly evolving; novel or traditional ideas and perspectives emerge or re-emerge, thus calling for a re-evaluation of the status quo. Changes ranging from minor adjustments to complete paradigm shifts have been a defining variable throughout the history of education, and teacher education has not escaped such scrutiny and demands for transformation, although it has typically lagged behind (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Richardson, 1996).

Prior to the mid-1970s, behaviorism and a process-product paradigm dominated the field of education. Behaviorism posited a hierarchical and transmittal view of knowledge, in which knowledge was transmitted in the following order: researcher, textbook, administrator, teacher educator, and teacher. Thus, inherent in this top-down structure, notions such as "expert" and "expertise" were valued and levied against teachers, who were positioned at the bottom of the hierarchy (Richardson, 1996). Teaching was conceptualized as "a set of discrete behaviors, routines, or scripts drawn from empirical investigations of what effective or expert teachers did in practice," and since it was assumed that behaviors were linked to learning outcomes, the goal of research became the search for optimal teaching behaviors (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 399).

The effect of behaviorism and the process-product approach in the area of teacher education was manifested in the adoption of its transmission conceptualization of knowledge. A training model was used to guide the instruction of student teachers: a teacher educator transmitted "accepted" behaviors and techniques, as deemed by research, to the student teachers, and it was assumed that they learned skills from the model and changed their behaviors. Therefore, teacher change, as seen through the lens of behaviorism, consisted of an external demand placed upon the teacher by the "experts," i.e., the knowledge sources on higher levels of the hierarchy. Teachers were then required to internalize the externally mandated changes without question (Richardson, 1996).

Starting in the mid-1970s, a new body of educational research began to develop that challenged behaviorism and the process-product paradigm. It raised socio-political questions about teachers

and their role and epistemological questions about the nature of what teachers knew and how they acquired that knowledge (Elbaz, 1991; Freeman, 1996). This new concern for teacher thinking and socialization emerged "in high-profile research reports in the United States and in England and in the publication of two books that became highly influential: Philip Jackson's (1968) *Life in Classrooms*, and Dan Lortie's (1975) *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study* (Freeman, 1996, p. 355). Lortie (1975), basing his work on that of Jackson, examined the powerful influence of schools and schooling. His concept of the "apprenticeship of observation" referred to the way in which teachers' past experiences as students within the educational system, during the approximately 13,000 hours spent in the schools, affect their beliefs and knowledge. Thus, schooling was believed to have more of an influence on teacher's classroom practices than any formal knowledge acquired during methods courses or student teaching. Consequently, this belief in the importance and tenacity of schooling prompted a questioning of the value of teacher education programs.

Following this initial impetus to place more attention on teacher socialization and thought, a constructivist conception of teaching had taken root by the 1980s. The world of teaching, according to the constructivist tradition, viewed teachers as constructors of knowledge rather than mere recipients and consumers (Richardson, 1996). Moreover, the constructivist conception of teacher change stressed the importance of teachers' control over when, why, and how change would occur and the fact that change is a constant variable in the learning-to-teach process (Richardson, 1994). Finally, the constructivist viewpoint challenged behaviorism's transmittal view of knowledge; it leveled the imposed top-down hierarchy. Teachers were no longer viewed as empty vessels waiting for "experts" to provide them with knowledge; consequently, the traditional training model of teacher education was replaced by one of teacher empowerment. The goal of teacher training was to provide the teacher-learners with tools that would help them construct their own knowledge by first recognizing their personal beliefs and conceptions of teaching and then joining them with their teaching practices. Teachers' construction of knowledge, accomplished on both a personal and social level, i.e., both through personal reflection and through engaging in open dialogue with others, formed the basis of the dynamic and continuous process of learning to teach.

**Teacher Beliefs**

Armaline and Hoover (1989) and Horwitz (1985) addressed the issue of understanding one's beliefs and knowledge about teaching. Specifically, they examined the influence of schooling and prior experiences on teacher-learners' beliefs and identity and how this tacit knowledge may be made explicit.

Armaline and Hoover (1989) used critical reflection to help students begin to articulate the beliefs that define their conception of teaching. Through the process of critical reflection, the exposed beliefs are open to scrutiny and then modification or replacement. According to these authors, teacher education must proceed in a series of steps designed to prepare student teachers for the culminating field experience. The initial activities are aimed at "dislodging students from belief systems rooted only in their own unexamined experiences of having been in schools as students" (p. 46). Providing the student teachers with core field and classroom experiences in which they are asked to evaluate and critique the teaching practices they both observe and demonstrate then challenges these initial beliefs. Activities such as microteaching and peer teaching serve as opportunities for such reflection on practice. Finally, the field experience allows for both practice teaching and reflection on practice so that the student teacher goes beyond "merely model[ling] the conventional activities of teaching and schooling" (p. 46).

Horwitz (1985) studied foreign language teachers' preconceived ideas about how languages are learned and how they should be taught. Over several years while teaching a methods class, Horwitz had her students fill out two instruments, the Foreign Language Attitude Survey (FLAS) [1] and the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Administered as the first activity of the methods course, the inventories assessed the teachers' beliefs in four main areas: foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, and appropriate language learning strategies. The purpose of having the students complete the inventories was to challenge student opinions and provide a type of advance organizer to subsequent course content. From her experience with these instruments, Horwitz concluded that they provided a systematic way of assessing language teachers' beliefs and allowing the teachers to consciously examine the beliefs that otherwise may have remained tacit. Nevertheless, she pointed to the need for research that would document whether the beliefs that surfaced as a result of completing the inventories were subsequently maintained throughout the teaching career of the methods students. The present study was an attempt to further Horwitz' work on pre-service teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching, examining their beliefs both at the beginning and end of the foreign language teaching methods course.

## METHODS

Participants included twenty undergraduate students enrolled in two foreign language teaching methodology courses at two different universities during the Fall 1999 semester. Most students were simultaneously enrolled in a practicum

experience at the high school or post-high school setting.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized. The two quantitative instruments were those used by Horwitz (1985): the Foreign Language Attitude Survey (FLAS) and the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). For the purposes of the present study, three statements were added to the BALLI: numbers 28, 29, and 30. See Appendices A and B for copies of these instruments. Both surveys included a five-point Likert scale. They were administered at the beginning and the end of both methods courses. Qualitative data consisted of belief statements written by the participants at the beginning and end of the semester. Analysis of the survey data consisted of a Marginal Homogeneity test, the non-parametric version of a repeated measures t-test (p was preset at <.05. A Mann-Whitney $\mu$ test was also performed to determine whether there were differences between the responses of the two methods classes, and no significant differences were found ($p<.05$).

## Results and Discussion

### Significant Changes in Beliefs

The following section discusses five survey statements found to be significant; that is, statements for which a significant difference between the pre- and post-test means was found. Each statement is first presented with quantitative data from the surveys, and then followed by supporting quotes from the participants' belief papers.

Participants' responses to the first statement, "The student's motivation to continue language study is directly related to her/his success in actually learning to speak the language," illustrate that while at the beginning of the semester they remained neutral (x=3.32) at the end of the semester they moved toward agreement with the statement (x=3.73) (see Figure 1).

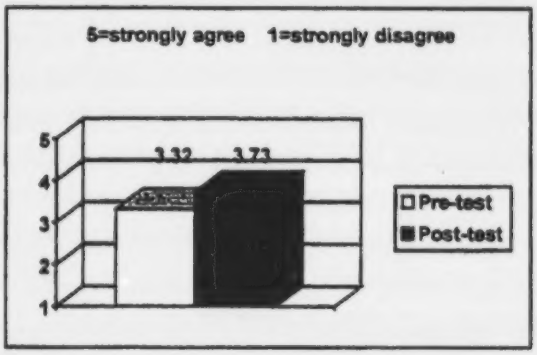


Figure 1. Means for "The student's motivation to continue language study is directly related to learning to speak the language."

This belief in the importance of motivation can be illustrated by the following quotes, taken from the participants' belief papers at the end of the course:

> Learning a foreign language requires much interest, joy and intrinsic motivation. To succeed in a foreign language

> is not so much the teacher's doing (well, of course the teacher can make the class interesting and fun instead of boring and dry and can explain grammar well) but the student's. His development is mostly dependent on his efforts.
>
> I will prepare learners to become intrinsically and extrinsically motivated and to enjoy the language throughout their lifetime.

It is interesting to note the difference in perspective between these two quotes. While the first participant focused on the students motivating themselves, the second chose to stress the teacher's responsibility to motivate the students. This contrast was reflected in many of the participants' belief statements.

The second statement was "Language learning ability is innate; therefore, everyone should be capable of learning a second language if she/he is capable of learning a first language." While staying relatively neutral, it is evident that the participants, at the end of the course, moved toward agreement with the statement (pre-course, x=2.77; post-course, x=3.32) (see Figure 2).

Participants' agreement with this statement is illustrated by the following quotes, taken from their end of the semester belief statements:

> I believe that all students have different learning abilities and with the right help from good teachers, they can become avid speakers of a second language.
>
> It is not easy to learn a second language and for some it comes more easily than to others, but every student should be encouraged to at least give it a try and with the help of the right teacher, they may end up achieving fluency.

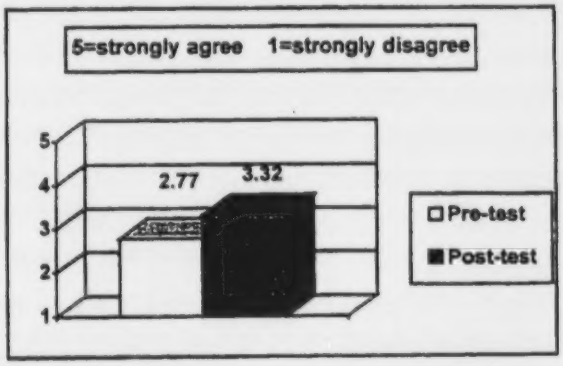


Figure 2. Means for "Language learning ability is innate; therefore, everyone should be capable of learning a second language if she/he is capable of learning a first language."

It is important to note that both methods courses included a discussion of the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning*, and one of the three main assumptions of the Standards is the ability of *all* students to be successful language learners. Thus, this discussion may have influenced participants' beliefs regarding this statement.

Regarding the next statement, "It's important to repeat and practice a lot," the participants agreed less with the statement at the end of the course (pre-course, x=1.59; post-course, x=2.14). (Note that 5=strongly disagree and 1=strongly agree—the scale was reversed on the BALLI). (see Figure 3). So while participants still agree with this statement, they do agree less strongly.

The first quote below was taken from a participant's pre-course belief paper, and it clearly demonstrates a strong belief in the value of repetition and practice:

> Second languages are learned through repetition. [...] When babies begin to learn their first language, they listen to the world around them and then begin to repeat what they hear. They constantly repeat words that they know that the adults around them give a positive reaction to hearing. [...] The students are in unfamiliar territory and starting off on new ground, just as babies are when they first attempt speaking.

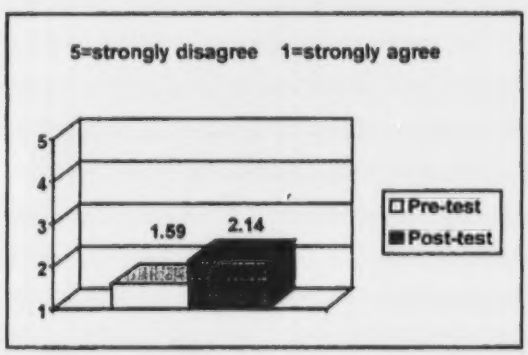


Figure 3. Means for "It's important to repeat and practice a lot."

This participant deleted the entire paragraph when revising her statement at the end of the semester. Another participant voiced her concern for the potential problems associated with repetition and practice. This quote was written at the end of the semester:

> Drill exercises tend to be too repetitive and the students may begin to despise the language because of the tedious task.

The fourth statement was "It is important to expose learners to the natural speech of native speakers." While participants agreed with the statement at the beginning of the course (x=1.81), they agreed even more strongly at the end of the course (x=1.43) (see Figure 4).

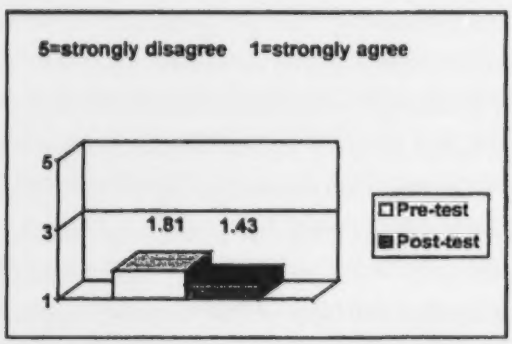


Figure 4. Means for "It is important to expose learners to the natural speech of native speakers."

Strong belief in the value of native speech is demonstrated by the following quotes, written at the end of the semester:

> Whenever possible, second language teachers should bring native speakers into the classroom, whether physically as guest speakers or through technological devices like taped dialogues and/or Internet.

> One of the discussions we've had in class that has reinforced my beliefs was about the role of negotiation of meaning as input for students. I feel that these ideas reinforced my belief that authentic conversation with native speakers is an important factor in learning a language.

These quotes, along with many others not included, demonstrate the participants' strong belief in the importance of exposing students to native speakers' speech.

The final statement was "The inclusion of cultural material in a second language course increases student motivation to learn and speak the language." While the participants agreed less strongly with this statement at the end of the semester, the pre-test mean of 4.86 was the highest of all pre- and post-test items and the post-test mean of 4.59 still expresses strong agreement with the statement (see Figure 5).

The following quotes, taken from the belief papers at the end of

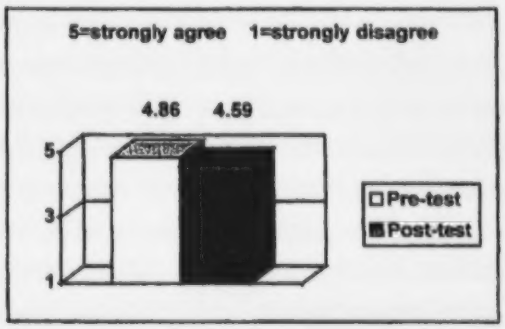


Figure 5. Means for "The inclusion of cultural material in a second language course increases student motivation to learn and speak the language."

the semester, reveal participants' strong belief in the relationship between the inclusion of culture and student motivation:

> Cultural content is essential to the study of a language and will only serve to increase the students' interest and enthusiasm for the language. Important roles of the teacher are to peak students' interest in the language and make them want to learn the language by introducing them to other aspects of the language such as culture.

These quotes, along with numerous others not included, show the value the participants place on culture in the teaching of foreign languages.

**Beliefs That Remained Constant**

This section presents the findings for six additional survey statements. As these statements did not show statistically significant differences between pre- and post-test means, they demonstrate the resolute nature of the participants' beliefs during the duration of the methods courses (see Table 1).

Regarding the first statement, "It is important for students to learn rules of grammar", the participants expressed agreement both and at the beginning and at the end of the semester. For example, one participant stated the following in her pre-course belief paper:

> The mastery of material is an important component of second language acquisition because the learner will never be able to build upon his or her abilities without completely understanding the basic grammar rules and vocabulary. Grammar can be managed through a lecture and practice method while vocabulary can be reinforced through memorization . . . Second languages are learned by teaching the rules and grammar of the language and then expanding upon that.

Then, at the end of the methods course, the same participant expressed the following in her post-course belief paper:

> The mastery of material is an important factor in second language acquisition because the learner will be able to build upon his or her abilities through comprehension of basic grammar rules and vocabulary.

Table 1: Survey Statements That Remained Constant Throughout The Methods Courses

| Survey statement | Participants' response |
|---|---|
| "It is important for students to learn rules of grammar." | Agree |
| "The teacher should always require that the responses in the target language be linguistically perfect." | Disagree |
| "When a student makes syntactical errors, this should be regarded as a natural and inevitable part of language acquisition." | Agree |
| "Simulated real-life situations should be used to teach conversation skills." | Strongly agree |
| "The ability to exchange ideas in a spontaneous context requires skills beyond a knowledge of linguistic structures." | Agree |
| "Language learning should be fun." | Strongly agree |

Through a comparison of these quotes, it is evident that while the participant no longer uses the word "completely" nor mentions "a lecture and practice method" or "reinforcement through memorization, she still expresses a strong belief in the importance of learning grammar rules.

For the second statement, "The teacher should always require that the responses in the target language be linguistically perfect", the participants voiced disagreement:

> Through my adaptation to a communicative philosophy, I have also changed my beliefs about error correction. While I am still unsure of how I will deal with this in class, I know that I will correct a lot less errors than I previously would have.

> The classroom is a place of growth and expression; therefore mistakes should be accepted.

This belief surfaces again with the third statement, which is, "When a student makes syntactical errors, this should be regarded as a natural and inevitable part of language acquisition." The following quotes illustrate the participants' agreement with this statement:

> It also does not matter if they make mistakes in learning the language. I have come to realize that it is a natural and necessary step of learning the language. Allowing errors will actually enable the students to learn more, because they won't be so afraid of failure.

> I believe that when learning a language mistakes are inevitable and should be corrected depending on whether the activity focuses on accuracy or communication.

It is clear that the participants feel that errors are natural and that requiring linguistic perfection of their students would only serve to hinder the acquisition process.

Participants strongly agreed with the fourth statement: "Simulated real-life situations should be used to teach conversation skills" as the following quotes demonstrate:

> I believe that the students should learn what can be utilized in the real world and practice real life situations and not just written exercises.

> [Teachers should] guide [students] toward the ability to converse using the target language in real life situations. Inviting native guest speakers into the classroom would most likely enhance conversation skills.

For the fifth statement, "The ability to exchange ideas in a spontaneous context requires skills beyond a knowledge of linguistic structures," the participants expressed agreement. One participant, for example, expressed her belief that knowledge of grammar and vocabulary can only take a language learner so far:

> Another aspect of sociolinguistic issues has to do with language in context. It is impor-

> tant to teach language uses that are common and acceptable in different situations. Students should know how to react appropriately in a social situation. For example, when I went to Spain and ordered a coffee for the first time I said something like 'Necesito un café'. The waiter laughed at me and I really wasn't sure why. I later learned that the verb 'necesitar" is only used in a certain context (of survival) and that I didn't use it correctly even though my sentence made sense grammatically speaking.

Another participant stated the following:

> An invaluable asset of foreign language acquisition is the ability to communicate with speakers of diverse languages, something that can be fostered through the use of and emphasis on communication skills in the classroom. Students need to be able to utilize these grammatical and vocabulary concepts to form understandable and communicative conversations to further their development and encourage cross-cultural interaction. This communicative ability is a valuable asset to the student in his ability to deal with an increasingly multicultural world and promotes an awareness and acceptance of cultural diversity within the classroom, the community and society as a whole.

Finally, the participants strongly agreed with the sixth statement, "Language learning should be fun."

> I stay strong on the idea that second languages should be fun. When I am thinking about lessons, the first thing I think of is 'Will this put the students to sleep?'. If the answer is anywhere close to a 'yes', I need to rethink my lesson.
>
> I believe all learning can and should be fun and meaningful. It is important to relate learning to students' lives in order to motivate them to want to learn. A teacher can be very creative teaching a foreign language and this can only help make it fun for the students.

While this final statement was not a central topic of discussion in the methods courses, it was mentioned by the majority of the participants in their belief papers.

## Conclusions and Future Directions

Foreign language methods instructors need to move away from a transmission view of teaching by recognizing that students bring beliefs with them into the methods course. During their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), that is, the many hours spent as students in language classrooms, they formulated beliefs about how languages are learned and how they should be taught. As was seen in the data, many of these beliefs remained consistent throughout the methods courses. However, some beliefs did change significantly, and these changes could be attributed to the ideas presented and discussed in the methods courses. Therefore this study points to the need for educators to continue to provide their students with

with opportunities to examine and surface their tacit beliefs about how foreign languages are learned and how they should be taught.

Future research would benefit through revision of the surveys to include statements reflecting current practice, such as the use of technology and the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning*. In addition, it would be interesting to follow participants throughout their teaching careers to document their growth, with the aim of better understanding teacher beliefs and how they influence their practices.

**NOTE:**

[1] Horwitz (1985) adapted the FLAS from Rebecca de Garcia, Sue Reynolds, & Sandra J. Savignon, 1974, Nashville Metropolitan Public Schools.

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## APPENDIX A
## FOREIGN LANGUAGE ATTITUDE SURVEY (FLAS)

[Adapted from Rebecca de Garcia, Sue Reynolds, Sandra J. Savignon; Copyright 1974, Nashville Metropolitan Public Schools]

This attitude survey has been developed to serve as a tool for helping teachers explore their own attitudes and assumptions concerning foreign language learning and teaching.

React to each of the statements below by circling one of the following responses: 5—strongly agree; 1—strongly disagree.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Foreign languages are hard to learn. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. Language learning should be fun. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. "Proficiency" means *correct* application of the four skills. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. The student's motivation to continue language study is directly related to her/his success in actually learning to speak the language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. A good foreign language teacher does not need audio-visuals to build an effective program. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. It is important for students to learn rules of grammar. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. The teacher should always require that the responses in the target language be linguistically perfect. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. The sound system of the foreign language should be taught separately at the beginning of the first sequence of instruction along with phonetic transcription. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. Taped lessons generally lose student interest. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. One problem with emphasizing oral competence is that there is no objective means of testing such competence. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. The inclusion of cultural material in a second language course increases student motivation to learn and speak the language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. Learning a second langauge requires much self discipline. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. Pattern practice does not provide a meaningful context for learning to use the target language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. Today's students won't take foreign languages because they don't want to work. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15. Language learning ability is innate; therefore, everyone should be capable of learning a second language if she/he is capable of learning a first language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. The language laboratory is an indispensible device for teaching and learning a second language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. Second-language learning should begin in elementary school. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. It usually happens that the major part of a student's grade in a foreign language course reflects her/his performance on written tests. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. Simulated real-life situations should be used to teach conversation skills. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. Foreign language teachers need not be fluent themselves in order to teach effectively for communication. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 21. Students should answer a question posed in the foreign language with a complete sentence. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 22. Speaking and listening are the skills which we should stress most in our language classes. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 23. When a student makes syntactical errors, this should be regarded as a natural and inevitable part of language acquisition. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 24. If English teachers taught grammar as they should, it would be easier for us to teach a second language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 25. The ability to exchange ideas in a spontaneous context requires skills far beyond a knowledge of linguistic structures. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

## APPENDIX B
## BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY (BALLI)
## TEACHER VERSION

[Adapted from Horwitz, 1981, 1985]

Below are beliefs that some people have about learning foreign languages. Read each statement and then decide if you 1) strongly agree, 2) agree, 3) neither agree nor disagree, 4) disagree, 5) strongly disagree. Questions 4 and 11 are slightly different and you should mark them as indicated. There are no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your opinions.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | Some languages are easier to learn than others. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | The language am planning to teach is:<br>1. a very difficult language<br>2. a difficult language<br>3. a language of medium difficulty<br>4. an easy language<br>5. a very easy language | | | | | |
| 5. | It's important to speak a foreign language with an an excellent accent. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. | It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak a foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. | You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. | It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. | It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. | It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. | If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent?<br>1. less than a year<br>2. 1-2 years<br>3. 3-5 years<br>4. 5-10 years<br>5. You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day | | | | | |
| 12. | Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. | It's important to repeat and practice a lot. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

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| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. | If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. | Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. | It's important to practice in the language laboratory. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. | Women are better than men at learning foreign languages. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. | It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. | Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. | Learning another language is a matter of translating from English | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 21. | If students learn to speak this language very well, it will help them get a good job. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 22. | It is easier to read and write a language than to speak and understand it. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 23. | People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 24. | Americans think that it is important to speak a foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 25. | People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 26. | Americans are good at learning foreign languages. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 27. | Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 28. | It is important to expose learners to the natural speech of native speakers. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 29. | Technology can enhance language learning. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 30. | It is necessary to modify texts written for native speakers because otherwise they are too difficult to understand. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

# *From a Foreign Language Perspective: A Snapshot View of a Dual-Language Program in Two Inner-City High-Poverty Elementary Schools**

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*Dual language programs are bilingual education immersion models designed to address the needs of limited English proficient students and native English speakers by providing an additive language approach. In this program, English and Spanish are used for the purpose of developing bilingual and biliteracy skills in students. This project was structured after the 90/10 model, which provides for 90-percent Spanish and 10-percent English instruction in kindergarten and first grade. Instruction in English is increased by 10 percent with each grade until a balance of 50/50 is reached in the fifth grade. This paper provides information about the program as implemented in two inner-city elementary schools.*

## INTRODUCTION

In an attempt by the Curriculum and Instruction Department of the Oklahoma City Public Schools (OCPS) to comply with Oklahoma law (H.B. 1017), which requires the teaching of foreign languages and cultures in elementary schools, while at the same time meeting the linguistic needs of limited English proficient (LEP) students, the idea emerged to implement a dual language program. In August 1997, a Title VII Bilingual Education Grant was awarded to the district for the purpose of providing an enrichment program in Spanish foreign language instruction for native English speakers and a sound English development and academic curriculum for LEP students. The Empowering School Communities, Yes! Title VII project serves two high-poverty schools, Shidler and Wheeler Elementary Schools.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAM

Dual language programs are additive bilingual education models in which native English-speakers and, in this case, native Spanish-speakers, and bilingual students are placed together in the same classroom where English and Spanish are used as the vehicle for instruction. The program is voluntary and requires a five-year commitment and the active involvement of parents in the educational process. The goals of the dual language program implemented at Shidler and Wheeler Elementary Schools since the fall of 1997 are for students to attain high levels of proficiency in their first and second languages, to perform academically above grade level in both languages, and to develop high levels of self-esteem and positive cross-cultural attitudes. This program is a Title VII project

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(see Appendix A for description) in which the teachers and instructional assis-tants foster high academic achievement by teaching content areas using both English and Spanish, and literacy skills are acquired in both languages. The structure of the class is such that English and Spanish dominant students are placed together so that students learn from each other as well as from their teachers. Sheltered instruction and cooperative and collaborative activities, in conjunction with hands-on learning techniques, are used to increase understanding of school subjects, all of which are also effective teaching strategies for instructing children from poverty (Payne, 1998). The student population of the two schools consists of slightly over 50% Hispanics, and the poverty rate is 99%, both factors contributing to the need for a strong language and academic development program.

The instructional design chosen for these two elementary schools is the 90/10 model similar to the River Glen bilingual immersion program in San José, California. This model provides for 90% of Spanish instruction and ten percent English language development in K-1 grades. Art, music, physical education, character education, and various special activity classes are conducted in English. In second grade, 80% of core subjects are taught in Spanish, and 20% in English. In third grade, the ratio will vary to 70/30, in fourth grade to 60/40, and in fifth grade to 50/50. This model of instruction was chosen based on the synthesis of research by James Crawford, who concluded that dual language programs achieved the most promising results in both language and academic gains for all students compared to bilingual education programs (Crawford, 1997).

**Underlying Principles of Dual Language Programs (Adapted from Cloud, Genesee, Hamalayan, 2000)**

*Additive bilingualism*: The students learn to speak, read, and write in a second language without risk of losing their native language. A second language is added for both limited English proficient and English-speaking students.

*Use of the languages in separate areas*: Languages are kept separate by being the vehicle of instruction in different domains. There is not code switching (using a language different from the instructional language) by the teacher in class.

*A variety of instructional approaches*: Subject content is taught through various approaches, such as sheltered instruction, hands-on tasks, cooperative learning techniques, teacher modeling language, and providing many opportunities for meaningful student output as well as drawing information from research on multiple intelligences, comprehensible input, etc.

*Alternative and ongoing assessment*: There is a repertoire of assessment techniques and methods that insure the students are mastering academics in both languages. It includes portfolios, journals, teacher-made

tests, standardized testing, classroom observations, and others.

*Parent involvement and commitment*: Parents are involved from the very beginning. Parents agree to participate in regular parent group meetings and in school activities; parents must cooperate with the school insuring that the students attend school on a regular basis, and commit to at least five years in the program. Parents are regularly informed of their children's language and academic progress in the program.

**Curriculum Components**

The curriculum is to parallel, as much as possible, the academic core curriculum in the regular program. Content is taught through thematic units based on the E. D. Hirch's *Core Knowledge* curriculum, and is introduced through literature. The curriculum is also based on the district's *Benchmarks for Progress*, a comprehensive document which includes the Oklahoma *Priority Academic Student Skills* (PASS), and the national standards of all the core subjects. The use of technology is another important component of the curriculum. Each classroom is equipped with three student computer stations where students work on a variety of software such as Josten's Spanish Language Arts and English Language Development, Kid Pix, Millie's Math, Science House, and others. Internet access and viewing by the whole class is also available. For sample of lessons observed in first grade Spanish language arts and second grade Science in English, please refer to Appendix B.

**BACKGROUND LITERATURE**

Dual language instruction has been touted as an enrichment bilingual education approach that is associated with significantly higher student achievement than the mainstream programs (Thomas and Collier, 1997). This model of enriched education is designed to serve non-English speaking children as well as native English speakers. It is an additive bilingual education strategy that embraces another culture and language for the purpose of developing bicultural attitudes and bilingualism in all students. With the increase of minority cultures and languages in the United States, it seems sensible and wise to use those resources to expand our students' knowledge of languages. Richard Riley, U.S. Secretary of Education, said, "It is high time we begin to treat language skills as the asset they are, particularly in this global economy. Anything that encourages a person to know more than one language is positive—and should be treated as such. Perhaps we should begin to call learning a second language what it truly is—bi-literacy" Riley, 2000, p. 4).

According to Griego-Jones (1994), the willingness to learn a second language is influenced by attitudes about languages and relationships with speakers of both languages. Oftentimes, minority language students feel ashamed of their heritage language, and must learn to deal with feelings about their minority status in the United States before they can use English productively (Ramirez, 1985). One way to promote better under-

standing and more productive relationships among the diverse cultural groups is to provide natural experiences through the classroom setting (Cummins, 1988). Cummins stated that children must experience natural interaction with native speakers of other languages to promote cross-cultural understanding and to encourage second language learning. Research from the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education in Washington, DC, shows that second languages are best acquired naturally and through sheltered content instruction in academic subjects (Crawford, 1997).

Perhaps the most important study addressing dual language programs was reported by Thomas and Collier (Thomas and Collier, 1997). Their research examined bilingual education programs across the United States and linked student achievement to instructional methodology in efforts to identify those factors that most strongly affected academic success. Through this study they identified "three predictors of academic success" (p. 15). The first predictor for academic success of language minority students were challenging academic instruction through the students' first language through at least grade five, and challenging instruction in English for a portion of the school day. The second predictor was the instructional strategies used while teaching through two languages such as cooperative learning techniques, thematic units, and discovery learning. The third predictor was the creating of an additive bilingual setting in which the language learner experiences a supportive context for learning in two languages. Thomas and Collier also stated, "In addition, English-speaking parents who choose to enroll their children in two-way (dual) bilingual classes have discovered that their children also benefit strongly from academic work through two languages" (p. 15).

Well-implemented dual language programs for English language learners can overcome the effects of poverty on student achievement (Thomas and Collier, 1997). In a study of 42,000 language minority students in five districts in Illinois, all students in dual language programs outperformed native English speakers after sixth grade (Pawinski, 1998). In this same report, the author stated, "In education there seems to be a correlation: The poorer the school, the lower the test scores. But dual language seems to work for English- and Spanish-speaking students regardless of their socioeconomic status" (p. 2). Many native English speakers in poverty also suffer language delay, and according to Lewis (1996), "the core of the problems of those on or nearly on welfare is the inadequacy of the schools' efforts to teach what they should first and foremost—language" (p. 187). According to Payne, poor children are more likely than those children who do not suffer from poverty to be developmentally delayed (Payne, 1998). The author also stated that children from poverty score lower than children from more affluent families on standardized assessments, and are more likely to drop out

of school. For these reasons, the strategies used in dual language programs are essential to students who suffer language delay, are second language learners, and live in poverty.

### Data Collection

The dual language program is a Title VII Project, which must meet the accountability requirements to disaggregate data over time to show academic growth. Database formats were created to collect student information and an articulated system with multiple indicators of student performance. Specifically, they were created to build a balance assessment strategy to help inform program improvement and to help make judgments about the effectiveness of the instructional program.

The database format includes structures for

1. Disaggregating data
2. Identifying factors that lead to student academic success
3. Identifying appropriate investments in professional development
4. Recording information on student progress in language acquisition, reading and writing, academic tests, etc.
5. Developing reports on student performance
6. Assisting schools and teachers to plan for program improvement
7. Disseminating accurate information
8. Highlighting strengths and weaknesses

In addition, there are five categories that are the basis for the data collection of the dual language program.

1. Student/school/parent demographics and characteristics, including needs assessments
2. Staff characteristics
3. Instructional services
4. Medium of instruction
5. Standards-based accountability/assessment

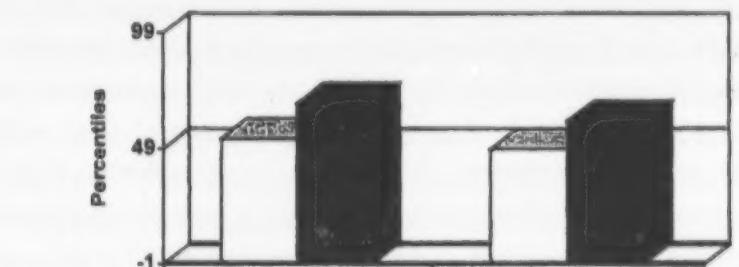
For Title VII reporting purposes, an appropriate data collection system serves to measure the effect of the program on student performance. Data collection can also be a powerful tool for inquiry and change for schools by helping lead to the creation of responsive, accountable schools.

### Student Language and Academic Assessment

Students in dual language programs generally perform below average on academic tests until the fourth or fifth year in the program due to the fact that they are learning academic content and a second language at the same time. However, research has shown that by fifth grade, these students generally perform better on standardized tests than monolingual students (Thomas and Collier, 1997). The students at Shidler and Wheeler Elementary Schools have received dual language instruction for two years and their scores were expected to be lower than the students in the monolingual classes on the norm-referenced tests. Dual language students are administered several tests throughout the school year for the

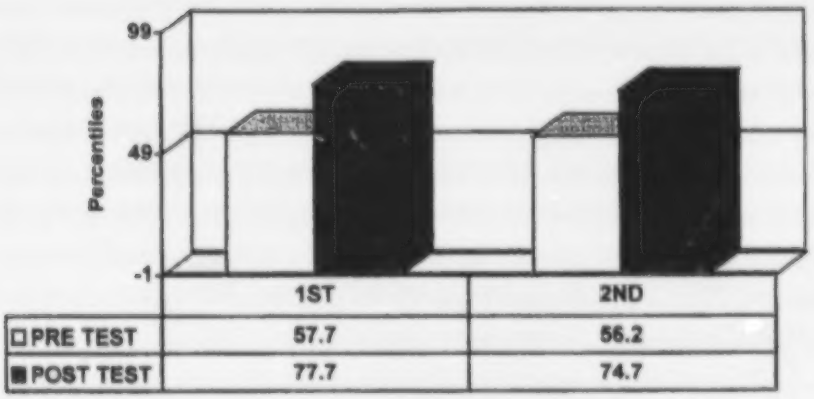
purpose of collecting multiple ongoing assessments. (See Appendix C for assessment calendar). In the fall and spring, these students take one battery of language proficiency tests, the *Language Assessment Scales (LAS)* in English and Spanish, and another one of academic achievement, the *Supera*, the Spanish equivalent of the TerraNova norm-referenced test. In addition to norm-referenced tests, both dual and English language development teachers are expected to make use of journals, portfolios, district assessments, observation, and other instruments to measure progress. Furthermore, yearly documentation using the *Spanish and English Reading and Writing Rubrics* is recorded for students in the dual language program.

English and Spanish LAS pretests were given in September 1999 and posttests were administered in April 2000. Pre/Post LAS test scores were recorded to determine level of learning from Fall 1999 through Spring 2000. Figure 1 indicates there was a clear increase in the English language for both Spanish and English speakers, although first graders received only10% English language instruction, and second graders received 20% English instruction. Figures 1 and 2 provide the first and second grade average test scores, not proficiency level, for the LAS (English and Spanish). Average scores continue to indicate an increase in both Spanish and English proficiency at both grade levels.




| | 1ST | 2ND |
|---|---|---|
| PRE TEST | 53.6 | 49.1 |
| POST TEST | 68.7 | 61.2 |

Figure 1. Dual Language Program Participants LAS (English) Pre- and Posttest Scores by Grade




| | 1ST | 2ND |
|---|---|---|
| □ PRE TEST | 57.7 | 56.2 |
| ■ POST TEST | 77.7 | 74.7 |

Figure 2. Dual Language Program Participants LAS (Spanish) Pre- and Posttest Scores by Grade

For a measure of academic performance, first and second grade students in the dual language program were tested using the Spanish version of the Terra Nova Basic Battery (CTB McGraw-Hill), and students in the equivalent monolingual classes received the Terra Nova Basic Battery (CTB McGraw Hill) in English. All were administered a pre and post-test in the areas of reading, language, and math.

The following Figures 3 and 4 provide information regarding Median National Percentiles of Wheeler first and second grades in areas of reading, language, math and an overall composite scores. Overall, first grade students in the dual language program performed better than students in the monolingual classes. In the areas of reading and language they achieved significantly higher and above the national average, which is unusual at this grade level.

While the second grade test results indicate a change from the first grade comparison in the areas of reading and language, they are performing at the expected level. It should be noted, however, in the area of math, second grade dual language students are excelling at a greater rate than the monolingual students. It is noteworthy that the monolingual students are scoring 65% or better in all areas. Two years ago (1997), Wheeler was on the state "low performing" list due to low test scores. Since that time, all teachers, including those of monolingual classes, have received the same ESL and second language acquisition

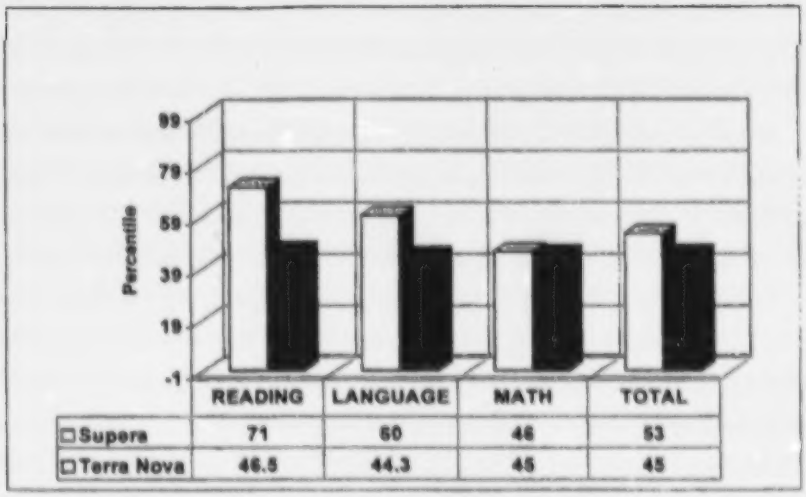



Figure 3. Wheeler First Grade Median National Percentiles

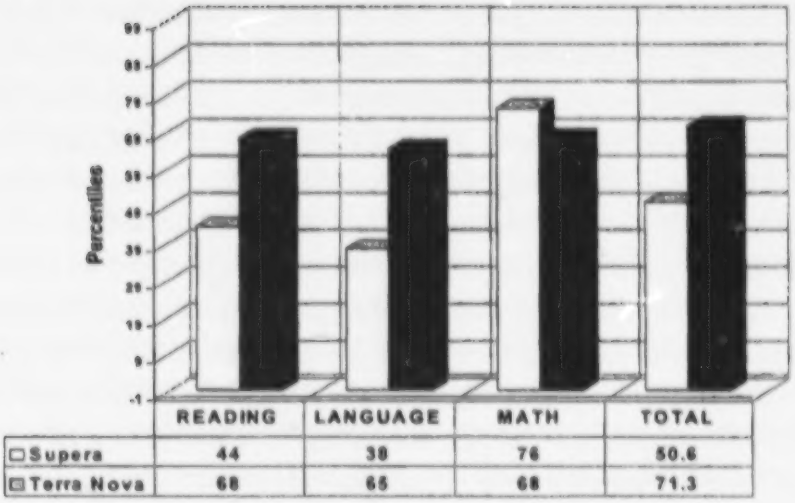



Figure 4. Wheeler Second Grade Median National Percentile

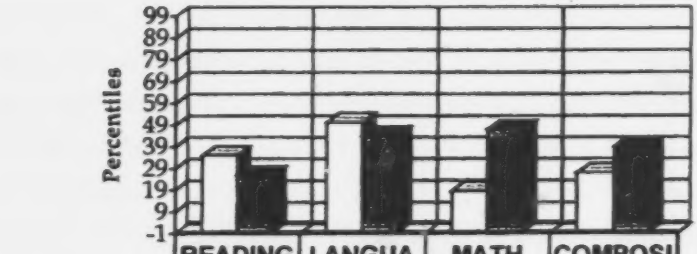
training offered to dual language teachers due to the high numbers LEP students.

The following figures provide information regarding Median National Percentiles of Shidler first and second grades in areas of reading, language, math and an overall composite scores. Figure 5 indicates that first grade dual language students performed better in reading and language than students in monolingual classes, but performed poorly in math. These results have prompted project workers to provide summer tutoring for Shidler first grade dual language students and to explore the variables that may have contributed to these scores.

Figure 6 indicates that Shilder's second grade dual language students' math scores far exceed the monolingual classes. The reading and overall composite scores also indicate that the students in dual language are performing slightly better than those in the monolingual classes.

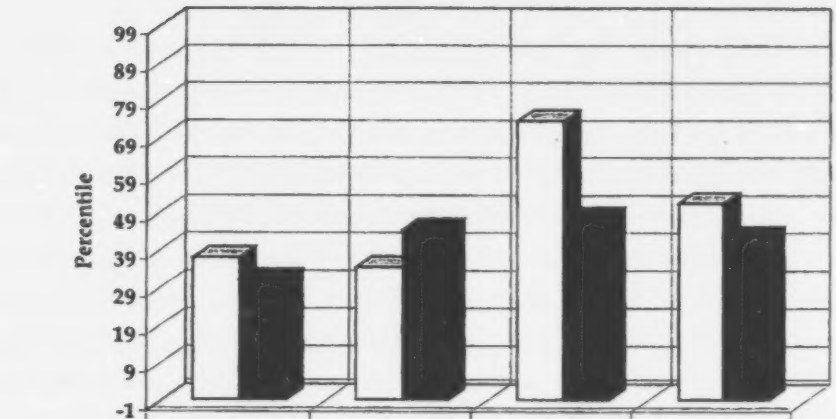
### Instructional Staff

Although every effort is made to find elementary certified bilingual teachers, six of eleven dual language teachers in the district are K-12 Spanish teachers who do not hold an elementary teaching certificate. However, all dual language and English language development teachers receive intensive training in second language acquisition, ESL teaching strategies, teaching content through languages, early childhood, using alternative assessments, dual language and English language development, learning centers, etc., throughout the school year and in the summers (see Appendix D for summary of training).




| | READING | LANGUA | MATH | COMPOSI |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| □ Supera | 35 | 50.3 | 18.5 | 27 |
| ■ Terra Nova | 25.7 | 44 | 47 | 39 |

Figure 5. Shilder First Grade Median National Percentiles




| | READING | LANGUAGE | MATH | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Supera | 37.5 | 35 | 74 | 52 |
| Terra Nova | 31.7 | 45 | 48 | 43 |

Figure 6. Shilder Second Grade Median National Percentile

In addition, all staff members receive training in ESL and second language teaching strategies and are encouraged to gain knowledge through college work in multicultural studies and ESL. Teachers maintain up-to-date inventory of all curriculum material and other resources utilized, as well as any other type of evidence of professional growth, such as conferences attended/presentations, writing grants, etc.

To measure the transfer of knowledge gained through professional development to classroom use, a survey of school staff was conducted (see Appendix E for survey and results of Wheeler survey). The principal and project evaluators will use a new classroom observation instrument in the future to help determine the effect of professional development on instruction and student learning (see Appendix F for instrument).

## CONCLUSION

The impetus for the creation of the dual language program in the Oklahoma City Public School District focused on three ideas: (1) the recognition that more successful approaches to addressing the academic needs of LEP students were needed, (2) the personal belief of the Director of the Curriculum and Instruction Department that every child should have the opportunity to become bilingual, and (3) that the language and cultural resources already in existence at the two sites would be used, and not the mag-

net school approach. After two years of dual language instruction students are performing better than expected both academically and in language acquisition.

Locally, the dual language program is expanding within the district and schools have begun to develop a liaison with Shidler and Wheeler. In August 2000, Rockwood Elementary will begin a dual language program in kindergarten and first grade. This expansion is significant in that it is two years ahead of schedule. The program will continue to meet the current objectives with the addition of becoming a more research-based project. Dual language staff, schools, and administrators will work with the external evaluator, develop a statistically data driven research-based project. History has shown that, with community support, the dual language program can be an effective educational strategy for teaching students a second language.

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**APPENDIX A**
**EMPOWERING SCHOOL COMMUNITIES, YES!**
**TITLE VII BILINGUAL EDUCATION OVERVIEW**
**AWARD NO. T290U70357**

*Empowering School Communities, Yes!* is a project designed to address more effectively the needs of LEP students and native English speakers by implementing a model dual language program in Shidler and Wheeler Elementary Schools, which can be replicated in other elementary schools in the district.

| | |
|---|---|
| **Length of Grant:** | Five (5) years |
| **Amount of Grant:** | $1.45 million |
| **Grant Personnel:** | *Project Director*: Sherry Coy, Assistant Director of Curriculum and Instruction, Oklahoma City Public Schools<br>*Project Coordinator:* Patrick Marc-Charles<br>*Project Secretary:* Jan Lollar<br>*Project Consultants:* Dr. April Haulman, Bilingual and Multicultural Education, University of Central Oklahoma; Dr. Stacy Southerland, Modern Languages Department, University of Central Oklahoma |
| **Project Partner:** | University of Central Oklahoma |
| **Project Goals:** | Participating students will (1) develop high levels of proficiency in their first language, (2) achieve high levels of proficiency in their second language, (3) perform academically at or above grade level in both languages, and (4) develop high levels of self-esteem and positive cross-cultural attitudes. |
| **Project Curriculum:** | Benchmarks to Progress, district curriculum, which contain thePriority Academic Student Skills (PASS), state curriculum, and core subject National Standards.<br>Core Knowledge Curriculum, E.D. Hirsch |
| **Project Activities:** | Ongoing professional development activities<br>College courses in ESL and Spanish certification<br>Adult education program<br>Parent/community involvement activities and training program |
| **Teaching Strategies:** | Sheltered instruction, cooperative learning, technology as instructional tool, TPR, role-playing, language experience approach, language taught through content, and other dual language teaching strategies. |
| **Technology:** | A teaching computer with television monitor in every |

classroom, three student computers with Internet access, teleconferencing and distance learning capacities.

**Assessment:**

Language Assessment Scale-Oral, Reading and Writing in English and Spanish (CTB McGraw-Hill)
TerraNova and Supera norm-referenced tests (CTB McGraw-Hill)
State CRT tests
Mobility rates
Parent surveys
Student interviews
Student sociogram
Classroom observation instrument

## APPENDIX B
## SAMPLE OF LESSONS FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

First Grade – Spanish Language Arts
Teacher: Mr. Noe Godoy
School: Wheeler
February 2000

The first lesson observed in Mr. Godoy's class was entitled: **Isla (Island)**. The children sat on a carpet in rows and read in unison the lines to the story. They worked on vocabulary (approx. ten different words), and the teacher asked questions on the story. The purpose of the lesson was to emphasize the Vowel+Consonant syllable, as in the title "isla", and in other words from the story, such as *"estaba, estuve, espero, escalera."* At one point, one of the students (English native speaker) asked in Spanish about volcanoes, and the teacher responded to him, also in Spanish without ever using any English at all.
The second lesson was entitled ***Bosque (Woods)***, and it was in the form of a dialogue. Here, the children read individually, and the teacher would take care of corrections by repeating after the students with proper intonation and pronunciation. The purpose of this lesson was still the V+C syllable pattern, as in the title *"Bosque,"* and in the line: *"¿Qué te gusta, Gustavo?"* (What do you like, Gustavo?). Afterwards, the teacher wrapped up the lesson with an oral review of the possible combinations (each of the five vowels+C) as were displayed in several posters around the room.

Second Grade – Science (English)
Teacher: Mrs. Lili Michel
School: Wheeler
February 2000

The dual language teacher is expected to teach science in **English,** which means that at no time should Spanish be used for instruction. ***"The magic hour"*** begins and ends with the science lesson. On this particular day, Mrs. Michel introduced the *"Life Cycle of Insects."* With all the students sitting as a large group on the carper, Mrs. Michel introduced the theme with a large number of visuals, drawing from students' background knowledge as much as possible. As the students would recognize the insect, she would have them spell it very slowly while she was writing the name of each insect on a big display poster board. In fact, when the picture of a *dragon-fly* came up, a student was quick to point out that the first part of this name was the same in Spanish. After each insect was spelled correctly, she would have the students read it aloud. Afterwards, her assistant used a calendar of insect pictures to have the students once again identify the

names and review the new ones or least known, such as the *praying-mantis*. Afterwards, the students went to their assigned groups and they were asked to agree on one insect (probably their favorite), choose a book from the many available, and use it if necessary for reference to draw one. They were challenged to use different sizes, colors, and details although several students in the group would be drawing the same insect.

## APPENDIX C
## ASSESSMENT CALENDAR

Data Collection and Evaluation Schedule
Dual Language Program

| Date | Instrument | Person Responsible |
|---|---|---|
| August | Report student information | Dual language teachers |
| | Administer LAS in English and Spanish to K-5 dual language students | Dual language teachers |
| | Administer LAS in English to all native English speakers in all K-5 monolingual classes | Classroom teachers and assistants |
| | Administer LAS Spanish to all native Spanish speakers in K-5 monolingual classes | Classroom teachers and assistants |
| September | Administer Pre *Supera* test to all dual language students | Dual language teachers |
| | Administer Pre *TerraNova* Test to all students in monolingual classes | Classroom teachers |
| | Interview Advisory Board | Evaluator |
| October | Parent Survey | Coordinator and all teachers |
| November | Dual language student interviews (sociogram) | Evaluator |
| | Interview Advisory Board | Evaluator |
| December | Adult education evaluations | Coordinator and instructors |
| January | Parent Focus Groups | Coordinator and evaluator |
| February | Classroom observations | Evaluator, Coordinator |
| | Interview Advisory Board | Evaluator |
| | Parent Focus Groups | Evaluator, Coordinator |
| March | Administer ITBS | Principal |
| | Administer Post *Supera* test to all dual language students | Dual language teachers |
| | Administer Post *TerraNova* test to all students in monolingual classes | Classroom teachers |
| | Conduct additional classroom observations if necessary | Evaluator |
| | Record *Spanish Rubrics for Writing and* | Dual language teachers |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | *Speaking Spanish* for students in dual language program | |
| | Record *English Rubrics for Writing and Speaking* for students in dual language program | English language development teachers |
| | Record schools' *Statistical Profile* information | Coordinator |
| | Administer 5th grade Spanish test to all students in 5th grade | Fifth grade teachers |
| | Administer LAS in English and Spanish to students in K-5 dual language classes | Dual language teachers |
| | Administer LAS in English to students in K-5 monolingual classes | Classroom teachers and assistants |
| | Administer LAS in Spanish to Native Spanish-speakers in K-5 monolingual classes | Regular teachers and assistants |
| | Interview Advisory Board | Evaluator |

## APPENDIX D
## TRAINING PROVIDED TO STAFF

| Date | Training | Hours | Participants | Fund |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| July 2000 | "Aims" Science | 30 | 3 certified | Title II<br>Title VII |
| July 2000 | Dual Language | 6 | 6 certified | Title VII |
| July 2000 | Core Knowledge | 30 | 10 certified<br>2 support | District<br>Title VII |
| August 2000 | English Language Development | 12 | 10 certified<br>4 support | Title VII |
| September 2000 | Front Page (technology) | 6 | 7 certified | District<br>Title VII |
| October 2000 | Great Expectations | 30 | 2 certified | Title VII<br>District |
| October 2000 | TechMasters (technology) | 30 | 2 certified | State |
| October 2000 | Know-It Reading | 6 | 4 certified | Title VII |
| September-May 2000 | Spanish Conversation | 50 | 12 certified<br>3 support | Title VII<br>Title VI |
| September-May 2000 | Effective Schools | 40 | 18 certified<br>8 support | CSRD Grant |
| November-January 2000 | Literacy First | 30 | 8 certified | District |
| November 2000 | Tom Snyder (technology) | 6 | 6 certified | Title VII |
| January-April 2000 | Compass, Accelerated Reader and other Technology | 12 | 30 certified<br>6 support | District |
| January - May | Teaching Children from Poverty | 12 | 9 certified | Title VII<br>District |
| January-May | Train the Trainer District Certification | 30 | 5 certified<br>1 classified | District |
| July-May 2000 | College Courses ESL Master Program | Total of 38 credit hour classes | 5 certified | Title VII |
| July-May 2000 | Spanish Cert. Program | Total of 12 credit hour classes | 4 certified | Title VII<br>Title VI |
| July-May 2000 | General Education Courses | Total of 38 credit hour classes | 3 support | Title VII |

## APPENDIX E
## PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SURVEY

An informal survey was conducted to measure teacher perception of the value regarding professional development activities. A total of 70 surveys were distributed to Wheeler and Shidler staff (i.e., educators, administration, support personnel, etc.) Thirty-nine surveys were returned from Wheeler Elementary personnel and 21 from Shidler Elementary personnel. Demographics of the returned surveys were as follows in Table 1.

**Table 1. Surveyed Teacher Demographics**

| Area Of Speciality | # Wheeler Respondents | # Shidler Respondents |
|---|---|---|
| Pre-K – K | 6 | 1 |
| First Grade | 2 | 2 |
| Second Grade | 3 | 2 |
| Third Grade | 3 | 3 |
| Fourth Grade | 4 | 2 |
| Fifth Grade | 1 | 0 |
| Other* | 11 | 11 |

* Includes administrative staff, special education, assistants, custodians, etc.

Surveys revealed teachers received a total of 3,545 hours of professional development training. Of these hours, 60% (2,072) were staff from Wheeler Elementary. Respondents indicated the most attended training was Effective School (922 hours), with 260 hours spent in Great Expectations, 240 hours in Compass, 179 hours of training *in LAS*, and 128 hours in literacy.

Two of the most noted ways in which the training was implemented were through the use of technology and implementation of the Spanish in the classroom. Respondents indicated they used the technology to make presentations, maintain inventory, provided ESL teaching strategies. Over 28% of the respondents used the training to implement the new technology, and 18.9% indicated they implemented their Spanish training in the classroom. Table 2 notes how each school's educators implemented the training into the classroom.

In this same survey respondents were asked, "How has the school culture changed since the implementation of the dual language program?" As indicated in Table 3, 45% stated that the climate has become "Very Positive". Educators believed that native Spanish speaking children now feel more comfortable to learn

**Table 2. Educators' Implementation Of Training Into The Classroom**

| Action Implemented | Wheeler | Shidler |
|---|---|---|
| Alternative assessment strategies | 1 | 1 |
| Administering of LAS test | 1 | – |
| Cooperative learning | – | 1 |
| ESL teaching strategies | 8 | 11 |
| Math and language skills Language development | 5 | – |
| Parent involvement | – | 2 |
| Problem solving | 2 | – |
| Reading | – | 4 |
| Software programs and computer technology; internet | 11 | 10 |
| Spanish | 9 | 5 |
| Story telling | 3 | – |

**Table 3. School Culture Changed**

| Culture Change | Wheeler | Shidler |
|---|---|---|
| No change, possibly in the future | 1 | 1 |
| Hispanic children are shown more respect, appear more confident, and are learning more | – | 3 |
| Lack of positive support from the district | – | 1 |
| Negative, lack of district support | – | 2 |
| Parents more involved and are coming to school | 6 | 3 |
| Very positive | 9 | 14 |
| Students learning Hispanic and Anglo culture...increased awareness of diversity | 4 | 1 |
| Students learning more in their own language | 1 | 2 |
| Teachers are more knowledgeable as to how languages are learned | – | 1 |

and are not ashamed to speak their language. Another noted effect was the blending and understanding by both native Spanish and English speaking children regarding each other's culture. A key noted effect was that parent involvement seemed to have increased with the addition of the dual language program. Table 3 provides a description of how the culture has been affected. Respondents were asked about any additional training that they desired. Of the 24 who completed this information:

- 12.5% stated they need more training in parent involvement

- 12% needed more training in the technology/software/internet related issues
- 12% felt more training was needed in Spanish language and culture.

## APPENDIX F
## STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING LANGUAGE LEARNERS: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

**Teacher** _____ **Date**_____
**School** _____ **Observer**_____
**Grade Level** _____ **Lesson Observed**_____
**Number of Students**_____ **Start**_____**Finish**_____

**Directions: Place a check mark for Observed (O), Not Observed (NO), or Not Applicable (NA) for each section and number.**

| | **A. Comprehensible Input and Output** | **O** | **NO** | **NA** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Uses contextual references (visuals, realia). | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 2. | Implements listening activities to assist students in developing the sounds of language. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 3. | Allows for an initial listening (or "silent") period for students at the pre-production level. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 4. | Uses a variety of questioning strategies and activities to meet the needs of individuals at varying stages of language acquisition. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 5. | Exposes students to higher levels of comprehensible language. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 6. | Links new vocabulary and language to previously learned information. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 7. | Provides activities and opportunities for increased student talk as students develop English. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 8. | Taps into and accesses students' prior knowledge. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| | **B. Negotiation of Meaning** | | | |
| 1. | Monitors student comprehension through interactive means such as checking for comprehension and clarification, utilizing questioning strategies, having students paraphrase, define, and model. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 2. | Modifies instruction as needed using strategies such as scaffolding, expansion, demonstration, and modeling. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 3. | Encourages students to communicate in the language of instruction, using familiar vocabulary and structures. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 4. | Modifies teacher-talk to make input comprehensible. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 5. | Uses extra-linguistic clues (e.g., gestures, facial expressions) to emphasize or clarify meaning. | ____ | ____ | ____ |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. | Matches language with experience. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 7. | Models the language with natural speech and intonation | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 8. | Provides opportunities for students to use English with varied audiences and for a variety of purposes. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 9. | Verifies that all students comprehend before moving on. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| **C.** | **"Sheltered " Content Instruction** | | | |
| 1. | Modifies the language input according to the needs of the students (e.g., rate of speech, added definitions and examples, controlled vocabulary, and careful use of idioms). | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 2. | Reviews main topic and key vocabulary and ideas. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 3. | Checks frequently for understanding. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 4. | Bridges new "unknown" material to "known"—what students have already learned. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 5. | Organizes instruction around themes and content appropriate to students' grade level. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 6. | Engages students in active participation activities and responses. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 7. | Integrates culture and content instruction. | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 8. | Uses added resources and strategies to help students access core curriculum. | ____ | ____ | ____ |

**D. Thinking Skills**

1. Asks questions, gives directions, and generates activities to advance students to higher levels of thinking (from recalling to evaluating). ____ ____ ____
2. Elicits student questions and encourages them to support their answers. ____ ____ ____
3. Allows ample wait time after asking questions. ____ ____ ____
4. Guides students through learning using varied groupings and configurations. ____ ____ ____

**E. Error Correction**

1. Practices sensitive error correction, focusing on errors meaning rather than form. ____ ____ ____
2. Accepts appropriate student responses. ____ ____ ____
3. Encourages taking risks in the language of instruction. ____ ____ ____
4. Develops classroom activities to address recurring or systematic errors. ____ ____ ____
5. Allows for flow of uninterrupted student thought. ____ ____ ____

**F. Classroom Climate**

1. Uses relevant material. ____ ____ ____
2. Displays of student work are evident. ____ ____ ____
3. Utilizes (and demonstrates respect for) students' home language and culture. ____ ____ ____
4. Nurtures a positive climate. ____ ____ ____
5. Rewards attempts at language. ____ ____ ____

**Comments:**

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# *An Infusion Curriculum For The Heritage Speaker Of Spanish**

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*The author presents an overview of the literature on program models for teaching Spanish to heritage speakers, noting definitions, intake and placement procedures, typical offerings, and effective approaches, and covering a proficiency orientation, infusion of subculture materials, study of sociolinguistics, community involvement, cooperative learning, etc. She then focuses on three studies conducted in an urban commuter institution with a large number of heritage speakers to determine students' views of mixed classes, motivations for rejecting heritage classes, and assessment of their own language background and abilities. Finally she reports on an experiment to infuse materials about Southwest Spanish into second-, third-, and fourth-semester classes. The experiment was well received by students and suggests both a permanent infusion curriculum for the regular Spanish course sequence and this approach to interesting some additional heritage learners in classes tailored to their needs.*

## MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE HERITAGE SPEAKER

Heritage speakers constitute a significant percentage of enrollments in many Spanish language programs, and the language knowledge and skills they bring to their studies are increasingly recognized as valuable national resources (Campbell and Peyton, 1998), resources that we must build upon and develop further rather than deprecate and attempt to replace (Latoja, 1997). Nevertheless, only 26 percent of Spanish programs in the nation offered heritage classes in 1990 (Wherritt, 1990), and only an estimated 32 percent do so currently. While we do not have clear statistical information regarding the number of programs that have enough heritage speakers to warrant special courses for those students, given the ever-growing number of Hispanic students in our schools we can well be concerned whether the needs of many are being well met at the 32 percent level. Mixed classes are still the norm in many settings (L. LeBlanc and Lally, 1997), and we have little to no information about any special efforts being made to meet the needs of heritage students within those classes when heritage classes are not available.

## IDENTIFYING THE HERITAGE SPEAKER

In practice, we refer to the target population as heritage speakers, Spanish speakers, native speakers, and a subset of false beginners, among other terms. We also may associate varying definitions with those terms, referring to those who speak Spanish in the home and community, those who hear Spanish in the home and community, those who are foreign-born and perhaps at least partly educated in a Spanish-speaking country, and those who may have spoken or heard the language in the home or community and studied it in school at some level for some period. Indeed, the profile is complex, even more so when we examine a thorough treat

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ment such as that of Valdes (1997), which highlights factors such as the country of origin, the length of residence in this country, the particular dialect and all its sociocultural associations, the proficiency level, prior language study, and range of prior academic success. While the literature has focused more on programs offered to the more fully proficient heritage or native-speaker student, with less attention given to programs for students with primarily listening skills only (D'Ambruoso, 1993), most of the types of students mentioned above are served within the framework of programs currently in operation.

### What The Literature Tells Us

Among the 32 percent of programs that offer courses for heritage speakers, there is no single way to identify the heritage student from among the rest and place him or her in the proper course. Schwartz (1985) indicates that some institutions use questionnaires about language use, some use interviews of potential students by faculty, some use credit equivalencies stated in the catalog (Schwartz, 1985), and some use self-placement, perhaps guided by a rubric that students use to make their decisions (LeBlanc and Lally, 1997). A few institutions use a special test to sort heritage speakers from other types of false beginners, such as that used at the University of Texas at El Paso, a test with some questions focused on language characteristics that only a heritage speaker would know and that are normally not taught in Spanish classes. Others use the same standardized tests that are used in general for placing nonheritage students, such as those from Brigham Young University, Ohio, Wisconsin, and Florida (LeBlanc and Lally, 1997). Among these are the Wisconsin College Level Placement Examination, the SAT II, the OPI, and MAPS from ETS. Some 39 percent use local course-specific tests (Wherritt, 1990), which are thought by some researchers to be more effective placement tools (Blackie, 1997). Most of the tests measure listening and reading comprehension skills, however, and thus do not separate the students who speak and write the language from those who do not. Further, all the possible measures, tests, questionnaires, and interviews are subject to manipulation by students, who can respond or perform as they wish in order to appear less proficient and often do so (R. LeBlanc and Painchaud, 1985, Wherritt, 1990). In addition, in the case of self-placement with rubric or checklist, students at the lower end of proficiency may not have sufficient information about their capabilities to assess themselves accurately and may overestimate their abilities (Jordan, 1985).

Finally, while 79 percent of institutions offer a placement test, according to Wherritt (1990), far fewer require students to take it (49 percent), and even fewer require students to act on the basis of the results (Wherritt, 1990). In many instances students register below the level of their placement even though general or Spanish advisers may try to influence them to register at the proper level and/or in a heritage class. Schwartz (1985) reported that 42 percent of California students registered below placement level or in first

semester, as did Klee and Rogers (1989), who also indicated that students often did so in order to improve grade-point averages. Kondo (1999) also supports the concept of grade-point motivation and adds that most students are more interested in speaking skills than in reading-writing skills and thus are often not concerned about taking the higher levels. Wherritt (1990) notes that 88 percent of false beginners enter first semester and only 32 percent of institutions offer credit for the lower levels with a higher placement as an incentive to go to the higher level. In some cases, of course, state policy does not allow public institutions to give away credit hours in this manner. Finally, only 28 percent penalized students who chose the lower level by awarding no credit, even though there is a widespread concern about using limited higher education funds to reteach students skills they acquired elsewhere (LeBlanc and Lally, 1997).

The literature also tells us that most heritage programs are limited in scope, comprising only one or two years of courses and mixing heritage and nonheritage students by third year (D'Ambruoso, 1993, and Villa, 1997). Since many heritage students, especially in the border areas, enter a program with Intermediate High or Advanced-level proficiency on the ACTFL scale, a level nonheritage students may not reach until the end of a major (Hiple and Manley, 1987), special offerings may be inadequate to addressing the need. Further, students in the upper-level classes may differ widely in their prior exposure to reading and writing the language. The nonheritage students will likely have had exposure to all four language skills, although their speaking may still be in the Intermediate range. The heritage students who enter upper division with CLEP credits and no prior coursework in Spanish of any kind (15-20 percent at the author's institution) may have no prior experience with reading and writing the language. These students often report that they "read the CLEP reading passages aloud to themselves in order to hear them" and thus, along with their listening skills, achieved a score necessary to place in third year even though they had in some cases never read Spanish before, never written it, and, in not a few cases, spoken it little. In such instances, the program that has only one or two years of heritage courses is not meeting the needs of this type of heritage learner when he or she moves directly into upper-level literature courses, as is often the case. Further, many upper-level programs in the Southwest are heritage programs only by virtue of their populations, which may be primarily heritage speakers. To the extent that professors are unfamiliar with the characteristics of the students, the literature on the most effective program models for heritage students, and the need to consider language development in all courses (including culture, linguistics and literature), the students' needs are not met. Finally, although faculty generally want the subset of heritage students who are nonprestige dialect speakers to shift to a prestige form of the language, these same faculty are often unaware that, even in the best circumstances, this shift will not occur in one course. Hidalgo

(1993) indicates that in some programs in Mexico a student is expected to take 600 contact hours to make this shift.

The literature is clear on effective approaches for heritage students. Building proficiency is primary, as evident in newer texts such as those by Blanco et al (1995) and Roca (1999), which emphasize developing all the skills in task-related contexts of high interest levels to students. In addition, content-based instruction, sociolinguistics (Merino et al., 1993, Pino, 1997), classes to develop academic domains in Spanish (Sanchez, 1997, Carrasquillo and Sagan, 1998), community-based projects (Trueba, 1993, Pino, 1997, Varona, 1999), Chicano literature to infuse culture (Merino et al., 1993), cooperative learning (Valdes, 1997), and opportunities to tutor other students are all shown to facilitate student involvement and learning. All these approaches fit Valdes-Fallis (1978) recommendation of the comprehensive approach to instructing heritage students, as opposed to the "normative approach." Some students have already internalized society's negative views of their dialect (Roca, 1997), and some faculty continue in this negative vein with their own negative views of dialect and assumptions of the superiority of one variety of native speech over another (Koike and Liskin-Gasparro, 1999). If only the confident student will use the language extensively outside of class (Kondo, 1999), these faculty may be inhibiting their students' further learning in more than one way. In general, professors rate Chicanos below other heritage speakers and even below anglophones (Valdez, 1998), possibly because few faculty are from Mexico and are thus less familiar with educated Mexican Spanish (as compared to their own variety) and even less familiar with the subset of Chicano speech. Given this situation, the confident heritage student in the Southwest should be rare.

## A Mixed-Method Approach To Working With The Heritage Student

At the author's urban, largely commuter institution, there were once lower-division heritage Spanish courses to serve a varied community of Spanish-speakers of many different national origins and from one to eight generations in the area. Many are of Mexican descent, however; and the number of minority students in the institution is approaching fifty per cent of the more than 18,000 students attending, according to recent enrollment figures. At one point, heritage students objected strenuously to being segregated into classes for Spanish-speakers and drew analogies to bilingual programs in the public schools, which they said also segregated students. Thus the courses were dropped from the curriculum. Recently, the heritage courses were offered again, with extensive publicity emphasizing the positive nature and potential benefits of the classes; but the courses did not make. Thus, heritage students continue to enroll in the standard communicative sequence, generally enrolled below their placement level. A few begin with an intermediate conversation and composition course, an intermediate culture course, or a special-purposes course, all of which can be more appropriate to their needs; but most choose the regular sequence.

Many first-year classes are more than fifty percent Hispanic; many second-year classes may be eighty percent Hispanic. Since there is no language requirement for students in most programs, it is often heritage students who are more interested in taking the classes. Cross-cultural communication modules and Chicano literature selections in Spanish have been used in some classes as an enrichment, although some students have reacted unexpectedly (since the literature recommends these selections as a way to infuse relevant culture) by saying they objected to reading about poor people (Gonzalez Pino and Pino, 1997). The University does not place heritage students effectively, since the required scantron placement test covers only listening and reading comprehension and tends to place heritage students higher than they feel comfortable. However, they can choose to ignore the placement; and many do so.

At the upper-level and Master's level, the program includes many elements recommended in the literature. Proficiency-building is facilitated through a series of three oral communication courses and three composition courses. Expansion into the academic domain is especially facilitated through an advanced reading course in which students work with materials from a variety of disciplines. Task-oriented activities and community-based activities are meshed and provided in a number of courses, depending on the instructor, and are particularly emphasized in internships in the community. There are courses at both levels on Southwest Spanish and Chicano literature, and several instructors (though not all) use cooperative-learning techniques. Thus much of what has been recommended in the literature has been incorporated and used successfully at these levels, where most of the students are heritage speakers. Given that circumstance, the need has seemed particularly to infuse even more of these elements into the regular lower-division program since the students were not interested in enrolling in special courses.

## Studying The Context

A first step was to determine what students' perspectives were regarding the classes they were in, the type of classes they wanted and why, and their own language variety, abilities and needs. During 1998, 1999, and 2000 students responded to questionnaires on these topics so that faculty could consider the findings and their implications for an even more effective program design. The first questionnaire in 1998 (See appendix.) addressed how students viewed mixed classes, the kind of classes in which they were currently enrolled. Two hundred students in first through fourth semester participated; and of these, 45 percent classified themselves as heritage speakers. Twenty-five percent were true beginners, and thirty percent were other types of false beginners. A majority of the students (70 percent) thought that students should be allowed to register for any courses for which they did not have prior credit, even if overqualified (the current policy). One hundred percent of them thought that overqualified students wished to improve their grade-point average. A majority of the students

found the mixed class helpful, since 76 percent could learn from more proficient students and 63 percent found the more proficient students willing to help. Unlike the literature (Loughrin-Sacco, 1992), more of the heritage speakers apparently enjoy helping the non-heritage students, and the anglophones are less intimidated . Seventy-five percent thought the course was taught at its appropriate level, undistorted by the mixture; and only 12 percent thought a true beginner could not earn an A.

Serious curricular implications were found, however, in the fact that only 36 percent thought there should be accelerated courses and only 42 percent thought heritage courses should even be offered (not required). Indeed, 72 percent thought that, if offered, heritage courses should be optional to those who qualify to be in them. An overwhelming 94 percent thought one sequence was sufficient for everyone.

Another important question concerned how many students actually identified themselves as heritage speakers, as it seemed that many students who had significant exposure to the language did not so envision themselves. A second questionnaire was used in 1999 (See appendix.) with another 200 students in first and second-year Spanish. This time, seventy percent were Hispanic. Indeed, seventy percent of the Hispanics indicated that they were true beginners in the language, even though more than half of these individuals indicated prior exposure to Spanish, either hearing or speaking the language in the home, with family, and/or in the community. Eighty percent indicated that they would not register for heritage classes and that they wanted to be in the regular sequence to use what they know to advantage and to make good grades. Thirty percent thought heritage courses would be too demanding. Clearly there was a discrepancy in faculty views of students and students' views of their own language backgrounds. Again, there was little interest in heritage courses.

### A Special Infusion

Since the program was already communicative and proficiency-oriented, cooperative-learning and pair activities were already used, cross-culture communication and Chicano literature were infused to some extent, some instructors included community-based activities, and expansion into the academic domains was available to some extent in the special-purposes courses, the primary element from the literature which could appear to be lacking was the sociolinguistic study. Thus the third questionnaire in 1999 and 2000 (See appendix.) focused on this area. Initially a limited amount of material about Southwest Spanish (See appendix.) was infused into second-year classes and selected second-semester classes in order to benefit heritage speakers by providing information they might normally have accessed in heritage classes or advanced classes (which they might never take) and to benefit non-heritage speakers who are very aware also that the language of the classroom and the language of the community are often not identical. The infusion was also intended to determine

whether this information would be of interest to the heritage student. Material on Southwest Spanish was presented as a handout to students and was discussed in classes on several occasions, as well as addressed via the third questionnaire to collect students' reactions to the material. Another 200 students participated, with nearly 70 percent Hispanics. One hundred percent of the students found the material helpful and interesting. Fifty percent wanted more information, 25 percent recommended creating a study guide, and 35 percent recommended creating a lower-division course on this topic. Fifty percent recommended offering heritage classes, slightly up from the 42 percent on the previous questionnaire; but 70 percent said to offer this material in the regular classes, that it was needed there.

Clearly the infusion of material about Southwest Spanish was well-received and should be continued. While it did not seem to create an instant and large increase in the number of students interested in heritage classes, there might be a trend there. A small amount of such instruction infused into the regular program might help over time to interest more students in heritage classes, and thus further material is being developed by the author.

## Conclusions

The road to meeting the needs of heritage students may be a bumpy one. Obviously not all students are interested in special courses, although this research suggests that students may be strongly interested in many of the components of successful instruction in model programs for heritage students. Since the population is a very diverse one, perhaps the responses to meeting their needs can be equally diverse. As the students reported in the literature, many students in this context seem to prefer lower placements and higher grades at the same time that they are interested in a communicative class, task-based instruction, cooperative and pair learning, acquisition of varied academic vocabulary, ties to their culture and community, and a greater understanding of their Southwest language variety. For programs such as this one, with a similar cadre of students, perhaps an infusion curriculum is an appropriate option. Certainly it will meet the needs and interests expressed by the heritage students at this time, and it may later lead to an expansion of options for these students if a somewhat greater number of them eventually become interested in special courses.

For the time being, infusion will meet the students where they are and will overcome the special problem of many of the heritage learners seeing themselves as true beginners. Following Cubillo's (2000) advice about mixed classes and the incorporation of language variants, culture, and community along with communication, we may make our programs more successful. Infusing material about Southwest Spanish may add the final piece needed to address more of the students' needs and heighten their interest in the entire topic of developing as heritage learners.

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## APPENDIX A
## SPANISH CLASS PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. In my Spanish class there are students who are _____: (Circle all letters that apply) :
   a. True beginners in the language. Students that have had little or no former experience with Spanish.
   b. False beginners in the language. Students that have studied Spanish before entering the University.
   c. Native speakers from the U.S. who have been exposed to Spanish but who do not speak it fluently.
   d. Native speakers from the U.S. who are fluent in Spanish
   e. Native speakers from Latin American countries who are very fluent.
2. My classification: (Circle one letter from .a through f that best applies to you) :
   a. True beginner - I had little or no experience with Spanish before entering the University.
   b. False beginner - I had studied Spanish before entering the University.
   c. Native speaker from the U.S. but I do not consider myself *fluent m* Spanish.
   d. Native speaker from the U.S.-I am fluent in Spanish.
   e. Native speaker from another Latin America country - I am fluent in Spanish.
   f. Other (Please describe): _____.
3. Have you been given a language placement exam at UTSA? (Circle one):
   a. Yes b. No
4. Is this your first university level Spanish language course? (Circle one):
   a. Yes b. No
5. How were you placed in your first Spanish course (which may be this course) at UTSA? (Circle the answer that best applies.)
   a. I was placed in my first Spanish course based on the results of the placement exam.
   b. I was placed in my first Spanish course based on the Advanced Placement credits I earned m high school.
   c. I was placed in my first Spanish course based on the CLEF credits I earned.
   d. I placed myself in my first Spanish course based on my own assessment of my Spanish language skills/needs.
6. If you placed yourself *below* your Spanish language level in your first Spanish course, which of the following bestexplains your reason for doing so. (Please circle the answer that best applies or fill in your own response.)
   a. Because I didn't learn enough Spanish in my prior Spanish courses.
   b. Because I wanted to be sure I had a firm foundation in the language before going on.
   c. Because I felt *I* didn't remember much from my prior Spanish courses.
   d. Because I wanted to improve or protect my GPA.
   e. This question does not apply to me.
   f. Other:_____.
7. In *this* course, do you think you are learning *at, above,* or *below* your current Spanish language ability?
   (Circle one): a.. *At* my level b. *Above* my level. c. *Below* my level
8. Age: (Circle one): a. 18 to 30 years b. 31 to 50 years c. over 50 years
9. Sex: (Circle one): a. female b. male

[*Turn page over*]

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SPANISH CLASS PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE (Continued)

[On the original form, for each item below the student designates strong agreement, agreement, no opinion, disagreement, or strong disagreement.]

10. Please mark the column that most closely describes your opinions or reactions to following statements.

a. Students should have the right to register for any course for which they do not already have credit even if thev are overqualified for the course.

b. Students should not be allowed to register below their placement level and should be required to register at their true proficiency-placement level.

c. Students should have the opportunity to test out of any lower level course for credit.

d. Over-proficient students often register for lower-level courses to improve their grade point average since successful testing results only in academic credit, not in grade point credit.

e. I feel I can learn from students who are more proficient than I am and I welcome their presence.

f. I feel intimidated by students who are more proficient that I am.

g. The more proficient students are usually helpful to others.

h. The more proficient students don't really want to help others.

i. The instructor calls on the more proficient students much more often.

j. The instructor calls on the on-level students more often.

k. The teacher involves all students more or less equally.

l. The level of the course is harder than it should be because of the more proficient students.

m. The mstructoi moves through the material too fast because the more proficient students already know it or learn it faster.

n. The false beginners/native speakers get all the good grades. A true beginner can hardly earn an A.

o. Anyone who does all the work and studies hard can earn an A or B m this class.

p. This course is targeted at a particular level in the language development sequence and the instructor generally stays at that level.

q. There should be accelerated courses for false beginners.

r. There should be special courses for speakers of U.S. Spanish focusing more on reading/writing and less on listening/ speaking.

s. Accelerated or special-speaker courses should be optional, not required, for those who qualify for them.

t. Each course should target a proficiency level. Then with appropriate placement, special or accelerated courses are not needed and all students will move from where they are to higher levels of proficiency.

## APPENDIX B
## LANGUAGE PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE SPRING 1999

In order to serve our students of Spanish better, we would like to make adaptations to OUT program based on the language profiles of our students. In order to do this, we need more information about your language background and hope that you will assist us by answering the following questions, anonymously, of course. We appreciate your help. When we refer to heritage/Spanish-speaker, these are courses which assume the student has been around Spanish a little (lower level) to a lot (higher level) and which target reading, writing, vocabula~ expansion and culture and emphasize listening and speaking skills less than in courses for true beginners.

AGE RANGE (Check one.): ___Under 25 __26-39 __ Over 40 GENDER: __M __F

FAMILY LANGUAGE BACKGROUND (Check the one that best fits your background.):

_1. I did not speak Spanish at home nor with relatives.
_2. I did not speak Spanish at home but did with relatives or friends..
_3. I heard Spanish at home but did not speak it.
_4. I did not hear Spanish at home but did with relatives.
_5. I spoke Spanish at home and with relatives.
_6. I spoke Spanish at home, with relatives, and with friends.
_7. I spoke Spanish at home, with relatives and friends, and at school and/or work.

FAMILY RESIDENCE BACKGROUND (Check the one that best fits your situation.)

_8. I was born in the U.S., and so were my parents and grandparents.
_9. I was born in the U.S., as were my parents; but my grandparents were not.
_10. I was born in the U.S., but my parents and grandparents were not.
_11. I was born outside the U.S.

YOUR VIEW OF YOUR SPANISH LANGUAGE SKILLS (Check the one that best fits you.)

_12. I am a true beginner in the language because I've never spoken or studied it before now.
_13. I consider myself a learner in progress because I've been around the language at home.
_14. I'm a learner in progress who's been around the language at home and studied it before.
_15. I'm a learner in progress--I studied the language before but not been around it otherwise.

YOUR VIEW OF HERITAGE SPEAKER/SPANISH SPEAKER COURSES (Check one.)

_16. I would sign up for such a course at my level if the day, time, instructor, etc. were right.
_17. I would not sign up for such a course because I am a true beginner.
_18. I would not sign up for such a course even though I've been around Spanish some or a lot.

(If you checked Item 16 or 18, please continue. If Item 17, you are finished, and we thank you.)

CHECK ALL THAT APPLY:

_19. I want the regular sequence as I don't know the language well & don't want to miss things.
_20. I want to benefit from what I already know and be able to make an A in a regular class.
_21. Special sections are discriminatory.
_22. Special sections are likely to be too demanding.
_23. Even though I've been around Spanish, I don't consider myself a Spanish-speaker.
_24. In order to attract me a special course would need a better title, such as _____.

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_25. I need a course with _listening, _speaking, _reading, _writing, _grammar, _vocabulary.
_26. I'd like a course that included study of Hispanic cultural heritage in the Southwest.
_27. I'd like to study cross-cultural comparisons and intercultural communication.
_28. In a special course I'd like _____.
_29. Overall my opinion of such special courses is_____

## APPENDIX C
## SOUTHWEST SPANISH:
## UNDERSTANDING IT AND MAKING THE MOST OF IT

OVERVIEW

The Spanish language and Spanish speakers are spread all across the United States today; and Spanish is a second language here rather than a foreign language, making it an integral part of our society. Spanish has also risen dramatically in importance for us because of our vastly increased contact with people, agencies, and companies in the enormous entity known as Latin America (which some say even includes an overlay of the United States because of our history and the Hispanic cultures among our citizenry). Therefore, more and more students are studying Spanish at all levels of their education, for these reasons and many others.

The varieties of Spanish taught in our educational institutions are not always exactly like the varieties spoken in our communities, however. Just as we recognize that there are many varieties of English in the world today, we recognize that there are also many varieties of Spanish, deriving from many different national origins, social classes, regions, and other societal variants. We also recognize that there are different registers of Spanish, or levels of formality in our speech, just as there are in English and other languages. Because Spanish-speakers and heritage speakers of Spanish (those who are from the United States but who have lived and learned with Spanish as part of their families and/or communities), are ever more numerous in the United States, it is important that we recognize the vital natural resource that Spanish constitutes in our citizenry and our communities.

By understanding the variety of Spanish known in this country as Southwest Spanish, all those of us who are leaming and/or using Spanish can do so even more effectively. Those who are learning Spanish for the first time can also learn at least in part to understand this important dialect of the language with which they will undoubtedly be in contact if they use the language in this environment. Those students who are heritage speakers of the language can learn more precisely how this variety of Spanish fits into the larger constellation of the entire Spanish-speaking world; and if they themselves and their families are speakers of Southwest Spanish, they can compare its characteristics with those of the more universal variety of the language taught in their classes. This comparison will empower them to add the additional form of the language to their repertoire more easily, building on the strengths they already possess from their lifelong exposure to the language, maintaining their Southwest Spanish for use in its appropriate settings, and adding the more universal forms to enable themselves to communicate more effectively in a broader context.

Southwest Spanish has many roots. First and foremost, it is Spanish and is especially related to the Spanish of rural Northern Mexico. It is also affected by English and contains anglicisms. It is a repository for some archaic forms of Spanish, which dropped from use long ago in more populated parts of the Spanish-speaking world, areas that have had more interaction with one another, especially through the media in more recent times, and where formal education has occurred through the medium of that language. Here the language evolved for a long time in more isolated communities, certain sound shifts and changes in usage have occurred and been reinforced without contact with those other areas and without significant widespread contact with print media in many instances.

Most beginning and intermediate Spanish texts treat transnational differences in the language, but none to date provide any extensive information about Southwest Spanish. While there are textbooks written especially for the heritage speaker population, many students who speak Southwest Spanish do not have access to or do not avail themselves of these courses and thus do not have the opportunity to compare their dialect with the more universal forms. In addition, some heritage speakers suffer from being told by relatives, community members, teachers or other contacts that their form of the language is inferior and best forgotten, when in fact they have an enormous advantage in the form of a variety of skills and knowledge that can easily be

expanded into a more fully utilizable and extremely valuable resource. The Southwest speaker will at least have comprehension skills and a start on natural-sounding pronunciation. They likely have some subconscious knowledge of syntax, and they possess a certain vocabulary. If this individual also speaks the language, he/she has an even greater advantage over the person who is just beginning the language.

If one is interested in being familiar with or in expanding Southwest Spanish for professional use, it is helpful to understand the characteristics of Southwest Spanish and how these compare to the more universal national forms of the language. In the material that follows, you will engage in a brief perusal of some of the areas of comparison. Should you find this material helpful, you can interact with your Spanish instructor regarding further readings and/or classes that would help you continue this vein of study.

LEXICON

1. While Southwest Spanish uses much universal vocabulary, there are also ANGLICISMS. Words such as *troca, biles, espelear, huachar,* and *tichar* are common adaptations of English words. Expansion will help us add the universal words for these concepts to our repertoire.

2. There are also archaic forms. When we use *maneas* for brakes, *truje* for brought or *estofata* for post office, we are using forms that were part of the language when it was brought here, but these are concepts for which speakers in other locales have since developed other terms. Other examples comprise *haiga, ansina, nadien.* A good course or resource helps us learn these new forms.

3. There are many cognates (words similar in two languages) for English and Spanish. Mathematics and *matemáticas* are a good example of the many pairs that help us to expand our vocabularies in both directions.

   There are some false cognates, however, words which appear to be the same but are not. *Embarosado* and *constipado* are common and humorous examples of these; but there are other more subtle examples. *Educado is* a good example. In English it refers to formal education; in Spanish it refers to good manners, knowing how to treat others appropriately. *Letra, librería, atender, suc(c)eso, parientes, papel* and *nuevas* are additional examples.

4. In the Southwest we use many *mexicanismos,* words which work quite weil in a Mexican national environment but which are sometimes different in other settings. *Ouajolote, tecolote* and *zoquete* are good examples. Again our classes and resources can help us become familiar with additional forms.

5 In the Southwest we tend, as do speakers in other parts of the Spanish-speaking world, to overwork some of our vocabulary and function with a rather limited repertoire in some cases. A good example is the verb *agarrar,* which we may use for getting the bus, getting a cold, getting the idea, etc., much as we might overwork "get" in English.

6. We also codeswitch, meaning that we mix English and Spanish into the same sentence, switch languages from one topic to another and switch languages from one listener to another.

GRAMMAR

1. In the Southwest we have sometimes changed the gender of vocabulary items. It is not uncommon to hear *la problema, la sistema, la mapa, el canción, la papá.* It is also common for us to translate the two-word verbs from English (to come back, to call back, to give back, for example) into Spanish as *llamar pa' iras, doy pa' tras.*

2. We change past participles, sometimes to regularize them, and not using the irregular forms common elsewhere. We say *murido, escribido. abrido, cubrido* instead of *muerto, escrito, abierto, cubierto.*

3. We may use prepositions in different ways. We may say *debo que ir* or *necesito que* ir. We may say *las cosas que ellos necesitan ayuda* instead *of las cosas con que (or con las cuales) ellos necesitan ayuda.*

4. We may mix *tú* and *usted* liberally and are generally less familiar with the use of this distinction.

5. We may use an archaic ending in the past, e.g., by saying *tú hablastes* or *tú hablates* instead of *tú hablaste.*

PRONUNCIATION

1. We may add sounds, as in the following examples: *(a)tocar, (a)bajar, o(y)ir, cre(y)o, mu(n)cho.*
2. We may subtract sounds, as in *(a)hogarse, (ha)ber, (es)taba, telefon(o), pa(ra), clas(e). e(ll)a, torti(ll)a, ne(ce)sita,* or *tam(b)ién.*

3. We may switch sounds, as in *luenga, siudad, pader, porblema, estógamo,*

4. We may otherwise change sounds, as in *estoria, deficil, ofecina,joventud, dicir, dishonesto, nojotros, pos, gradar, experencia, cencia.*

POSTSCRIPT

The foregoing are a few examples of the areas that are helpful for us to understand as we learn to communicate both in the Southwest environment and in a much broader one. Certainly the person who knows all the above forms already has much valuable vocabulary (though most heritage speakers don't exhibit all these forms) and, with the opportunity for study in class or with appropriate materials, can build on what is already known to broaden Southwest Spanish as a valuable resource and foundation for a universal Spanish.

## *TO LOWER DIVISION SPANISH STUDENTS*

We are interested in knowing how you react to the reading on Southwest Spanish, as we are including material of this type in our classes. Please read the selection and answer the following questions, as your input would be very helpfu[illegible]us. Thank you for assisting.

CHECK ALL THAT APPLY.

_____1. The material is helpful.
_____2. The length is appropriate.
_____3. The material is too brief.
_____4, The points are clear.
_____5. More examples are needed.
_____6. Additional information is needed.
_____7. Delete some of it.
_____8. Create a self-study guide with tape/CD and exercises.
_____9. Create a lower division course to cover this in depth.
____10. Offer courses for heritage speakers.
____11. Include this material in the regular 1014, 1024, 2013, 2023.
____12. This material is needed.
____13. The tone of the material is positive and constructive.
____14. Other comments:

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# *Multiple Metaphors: Teaching Tense And Aspect To English-Speakers**

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*Recent research points to evidence that second language learners acquire "skills" (declarative knowledge) that can be proceduralized through systematic practice and finally automatized by a period of repeated opportunities to use that knowledge in meaningful communication. This article proposes a synthesis of instructional methods from both traditional/explicit grammar and learner-centered/contructivist camps. This synthesis also incorporates metaphors of many types (visual, abstract, kinesthetic) in order to lead learners from declarative to proceduralized to automatized knowledge, thus enabling a more complete cognitive organization of a more native-like use of aspect.*

## INTRODUCTION

Most teachers of Romance languages agree that speakers of English encounter major difficulties in acquiring the concept of aspect. Traditional teacher-based methods of explicit grammar instruction, founded on theories of behaviorism and structuralist linguistics, are no longer supported by current research in linguistics and second language acquisition (Blyth, 1997). Learner-centered or constructivist approaches, associated with Piaget, Vygotsky, and others, reject the notion that there even exists an objective reality for the traditional teacher to transmit to students; instead, one might expect to find in the classroom multiple realities or multiple ways of knowing that spring from theories about the effect of meaning-bearing input and negotiation of meaning.

Recent research carried out by both deKeyser (1998) and Johnson (1999) points to evidence that second language learners acquire "skills" (declarative knowledge) which can be proceduralized through systematic practice and finally automatized by a period of repeated opportunities to use that knowledge in meaningful communication. Given that a single methodology is not sufficient to ensure success for all learners or for all linguistic "rules," I propose a synthesis of instructional methods from both traditional/explicit grammar and learner-centered/contructivist camps which also incorporates metaphors of many types (abstract, visual, kinesthetic) in order to lead learners from declarative to proceduralized to automatized knowledge. This integrative, synthetic approach would arguably result in several different or multiple ways of "knowing" aspect, providing learners with a more complete cognitive organization of that which is encompassed in native-like use of aspect.

## PRESENTATION OF DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE

My instructional strategy includes an explicit pedagogical grammar reference for the rather complex rules about the formation of the *passé composé* and

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*imparfait* in French. I follow then with rules and metaphors about the choice of tense/aspect (Appendix A).

Students receive a homework packet which reviews the formation of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait* which they have already covered but have not yet mastered and still need to practice (Section A). This presentation is terrifically long and complex because the material is neither simple to understand nor is it easily transferrable from their native English. I've also chosen such a thorough treatment since the formation of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait* has been stretched over several chapters of our textbook, *Parallèles* (Allen & Fouletier-Smith, 1995). I mean it to be a reference grammar to solidify declarative knowledge before tackling the presentation of the "new material," differences in the uses of the two past tenses, which involves a juxtaposition of concepts very difficult for the English-speaking student to grasp, much less manipulate.

In the presentation of material new to the student (choice between the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*, Section B) I followed fairly closely the presentation of *Punto y aparte* (Foerster et al., 1999), which incorporates Bardovi-Harlig's proposal that both Andersen's aspect hypothesis and the discourse hypothesis must be activated (though not necessarily overtly or explicitly) to assist second language learners toward a more native-like distribution of tense-aspect morphology. The aspect hypothesis claims that the distribution of interlanguage verbal morphology is determined by lexical aspectual class, that is, that certain verbs tend to be used in one tense/aspect or the other--punctual events as primarily *passé composé* and statives as *imparfait*. The contrast of focus on the beginning or endpoint of an action vs. the middle of an action is a concept incorporated in lexical aspect explored in depth by Smith (1991). The discourse hypothesis claims that the distribution of interlanguage verbal morphology is determined by narrative structure, that is, *passé compose* to foreground the sequential events that move the storyline and *imparfait* to background the atmosphere, the description, the evaluative comments, and so forth. The presentation I have designed incorporates both hypotheses by including both Westfall's metaphor (1995), which underlines narrative discourse (Appendix A, Section B, Part 1: The Metaphor), and the usage chart (Appendix A, Section B, Part 2: Usage Chart), which objectifies lexical aspect. The student is able to formalize declarative knowledge by analyzing others' narratives in order to eventually construct his/her own narrative without burdening him/her with complex concepts or meta-language. Also helpful to these beginning learners is a visual mnemonic (Appendix A, Section B, Part 3: How Events Take Place In Time) that helps symbolize the characteristics of each tense/aspect and that can be used as a reminder when the student is "on line." An answer key is provided for the numerous exercises designed for the student to work through outside of class.

To evaluate this presentation against Swan's six criteria for pedagogic language rules (1994): first of all, the rules for formation presented are true while the guidelines for usage choice tend to be more rule of thumb--nature of the beast. The domain of both presentations is fairly clearly demarcated. The wording is clear with very little complex theory or metalinguistic terminology and the metaphor used, *colonne/chair* (spine/flesh) is a very helpful one. While neither formation nor use of *passé composé/imparfait* is very simply explained, the parts of the presentation are logical and orderly and broken down into manageable and easily practiced components. I can't say that the presentation is particularly parsimonious since the formation rules are so complicated and the concept of tense/aspect choice is so complex. However, all the information given (and exemplified) is necessary (and relevant) for the students in order for them to work toward mastery and, as pointed out above, the meta-language is minimal.

### PRACTICE/PROCEDURALIZATION

Learners then continue practice with a series of exercises in which they analyze native narratives in both cartoon and text formats beginning with visual and then discourse-based metaphors before re-analyzing with lexical aspect and translation (Appendix B).

**Pratique 7**

Students are divided into five groups and assigned one of the pictures. Each group is to pick which sentences match their picture and then write some logical original sentences. While the groups are working, the discourse metaphor *chair/colonne* is drawn on the board or shown on an overhead transparency as well as the pop-up reminder of *fouréé* points of usage chart, the symbols X and ∿∿ , and a reminder of the formation of the *passé composé* and *imparfait*. The sentences are eventually written on the board in the appropriate column (*colonne/chair*) and each group justifies usage and formation.

**Pratique 8**

I then incorporate TPR (total physical response) exercises using both the French narrative and its English translation to provide a kinesthetic metaphor. The class turns to face me at the back of the room while I read the entire story out loud. The students either snap fingers for the *passé composé* or paddle the desktop for the *imparfait*. I remind them: "You will be indicating if the verb I read is *colonne* or *chair* [Westfall metaphor, discourse hypothesis]; if it is a completed action, sequential action, limited by time , a summary *or* if it is a continuous, habitual action or a description or background detail [usage chart, lexical aspect hypothesis]; i.e., if the verb could be symbolized with X *or* with a wavy line [visual mnemonic]." And afterwards: "So when you *heard* a verb in the *passé composé* what did you do? (snap) And when you *heard* a verb in the *imparfait* you (paddle). Now what happens when I tell you the same story in English? Can you *hear* whether it is pc/imp? So

you'll really have to concentrate on what the verb does, move the story-line or add flesh. Remember the hint about translations and adverbs possibly helping you decide" and so on.

**Pratique 9**

Eventually, learners engage in a communicative activity in which they analyze an oral narrative they hear using as many of these metaphors as possible while negotiating with their learner-partner the possible motivation of the use of *passé composé* vs. *imparfait*. Once the class comes back together, we list on the board *colonne* X events and *chair* description in order to decide if story was more eventful (active) or descriptive (emotional). Then the script of the narrative with all verbs omitted is flashed on the overhead while each pair is separated into two groups: the group of Charles Monotone, who use only the *passé composé* in boring voices, and that of Floriane Bavarde, who use only the *imparfait* in excited voices. Charles' group brainstorm some additional sentences to add events to the story, while Floriane's group adds descriptions and details. Finally, the first student from Charles' group gets up in the middle of the room to start forming a *colonne vertebrale*, while students from Floriane's group link arms on either side to start fleshing out the story, thus providing both kinesthetic and visual metaphors.

These tasks meet Lee's criteria for operationalizing communication: they are extended discourse; the learners share information (gap); the tasks have an unrehearsed element, are goal-oriented, are processed in real-time. One or more of the tasks allow for the expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning; requires two-plus participants; privileges the learners' use of language. There is an identified informational outcome; the topic has been broken down into steps; there are concrete tasks for the learners to do; there has been built in linguistic support.

**PRODUCTION/AUTOMIZATION**

Finally, learners are guided in writing their own original narrative by use of a handout that incorporates a simplified narrative model of Labov/Polanyi along with observations by Fleischman (1990) and Liskin-Gasparro (1996) and discourse worlds by Lafford (1999) (Appendix C, Pratique 10). The class brainstorms together on the board (or overhead) many verbs useful in talking about the first day of class as an exchange student in France, incorporating the vocabulary and cultural themes of the chapter. These verbs, as well as common verbs of daily routine, are suggested in the infinitive but are placed under the probable columns of use (*colonne/chair*) The students are told to write a story of at least 15 complete sentences using at least 12 different verbs and some other subjects in addition to "I." They are reminded of all the metaphors and encouraged to practice their story aloud until they can tell it without reading their paper.

The oral production task the following day is a recounting of that personal narrative without referring to notes. The students tell their story

in their groups while their group takes notes with the stated objective of voting on the most eventful/most descriptive. Students are directed to take notes using the narrative structure of their hand-out (Pratique 10), including arranging the verbs they hear in the appropriate column.

The final communicative task is to take notes (and possibly negotiate meaning) as the best of each group read their narratives to the entire class. The class then votes on the most eventful (most pc), most emotional/vivid (most imp), most typical, most horrific, funniest, and so on. Students are then advised to look over their notes and all handouts about narrating in the past before the test the following day.

The task-based test, oral or written or both, which holds the learner responsible for in-class interaction, is to recount in French his/her favorite narrative (not his/her own). Learners were prepared to be successful in their choice of *passé composé/imparfait* (and with the correct forms—both or either oral and written) with the steps and practice leading up to the test that have automatized their declarative knowledge. There is also a very traditional discrete point test, a cloze test, over the use of the *passé composé/imparfait*.

This integrative, synthetic approach to teaching tense/aspect has resulted in the production of much more native-like narratives in the learners in my classes. A close analysis of learner-learner dialogs during the communicative activities indicates that most students use several of the metaphors simultaneously to cognitively construct a much more comprehensive personal concept of aspect which has resulted in higher scores on objective tests, even for the less-able language learners.

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## APPENDIX A
## PRESENTATION OF DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE
## (NARRATING IN THE PAST)

Narrating or storytelling in the past requires that you know the past-tense verb forms and that you study and practice using the *passé composé* that you learned in Dossiers 5, 6, and 7 and the *imparfait* that you learned in Dossiers 8 and 9. To help you learn to narrate well, this section contains:

(A) A review of the verb forms for the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*
(B) Hints for understanding the relationship and differences between them through the use of the metaphor *colonne/chair* (backbone/flesh), an explanation chart, and symbols to show how events take place in time and in relation to each other
(C) A list of verbs with different meanings in the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*.

### (A) FORMATION of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*

1. Remember that in Dossier 5 the *passé composé* was introduced as a compound tense made of two parts, the auxiliary or helping verb which is conjugated and the past participle.

1.1 The past participle is normally formed by replacing the infinitive ending (-er,-ir,-re) with the corresponding participle ending (-é,-i,-u):

**parler -> parlé** **finir -> fini** **attendre -> attendu**

but you also have learned a list of irregular past participles studied so far:

**avoir -> eu**
**(déc)(c)ouvrir -> (déc)(c)ouvert**
**offrir (souffrir) -> offert (souffert)**
**être -> été**
**(de)(re)(pré)venir ->(de)(re)(pré)venu**
**boire -> bu**
**vouloir -> voulu**
**devoir -> dû**
**savoir -> su**
**dire -> dit**
**écrire -> écrit**
**faire -> fait**
**(ap)(com)(sur)prendre -> pris**
**mourir -> mort**
**naître -> né**
**recevoir -> reçu**
**mettre -> mis**
**pouvoir -> pu**
**connaître -> connu**
**suivre -> suivi**
**lire -> lu**

1.2 Most verbs conjugate with the auxiliary avoir, though about 17 high-frequency verbs of movement and change of state conjugate with the auxiliary être.

J'ai parlé à mes amis.
Tu as fini tes devoirs.
Il a attendu le bus.

Nous sommes allé(e)s au cinéma.
Vous êtes arrivé(e)(s) de Paris.
Elles sont nées en 1979.

In Dossier 6 we used the *House of Etre* and *Dr & Mrs Vandertrampp* to help us recall these verbs:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (de)(re)venir | aller | arriver | #(r)entrer | #monter |
| rester | #descendre | tomber | #sortir | partir |
| #passer | #retourner | naître | mourir | |

# Remember that these six "AC/DC" verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively (with and without direct objects). They conjugate with the auxiliary avoir when used with a direct object and with the auxiliary être when used intransitively.

Je suis sorti(e) avec mes amis.
Tu es descendu(e) en ville.
Elle est rentrée vers minuit.

J'ai sorti le vin de la cave.
Tu as descendu la chaise du deuxième étage.
Elle a rentré la voiture dans le garage

In Dossier 7 you learned that all pronominal verbs also conjugate with the auxiliary être.

je me suis levé(e)
tu t'es amusé(e)
on s'est réveillé

nous nous sommes couché(e)s
vous vous êtes trompé(e)(s)
elles se sont énervées

1.3 The past participle reflects agreement in writing with the addition of an extra -e or -s or -es at the end, though you can't usually hear any change in the pronunciation. You learned in Dossier 9 that verbs conjugating with avoir *rarely* show agreement in the past participle, only with the *direct object* and only when it comes *before* the verb either in another clause or as a pronoun.

Voilà la photo que j'ai montrée à mes parents.
Où sont les lettres que j'ai envoyées?
Je les ai mises ici.

Je l'ai montrée à mes parents.
Je les ai envoyées de France.

Verbs conjugating with être *almost always* show agreement in the past participle with the *subject*.

Ils sont morts.
Elles se sont dépêchées en classe.

Nous sommes venu(e)s en avion.
A quelle heure t'es-tu endormi(e)?

*But remember that if the pronominal verb has a stated direct object (often a body part) or if it is a verb that only takes indirect objects there is no agreement in the past participle.

Elle s'est lavée. BUT Elle s'est lavé_ les cheveux.
Ils se sont brossés. BUT Ils se sont brossé_ les dents.
Elles se sont téléphoné_ (téléphoner à)
Ils se sont répondu_ (répondre à)

So to summarize, there are three main points to remember in forming the *passé composé*:

1.1 Formation of the past participle: -é, -i, -u and irregulars
1.2 Choice of auxiliary: only 17 verbs and pronominals use être, everything else conjugates with avoir
1.3. Agreement: rarely with avoir, almost always with être

1.4 Don't forget that, to form the negative, ne and pas go around the conjugated verb (either avoir or être), never separating pronouns from the verb:

Je n'ai pas parlé à Fifi. Elle n'est pas morte. Ils ne se sont pas fâchés.

1.5 And also remember the list of short common adverbs that normally are inserted between the auxiliary and past participle: bien/mal, toujours/souvent, beaucoup/peu/assez, déjà/encore, vite

On a bien compris. Tu n'es pas souvent venu(e). Elles ne se sont pas encore coiffées.

PRATIQUE 1—FORMATION OF *PASSÉ COMPOSÉ*

Review the formation of the *passé composé*. Remember to pay attention to

1.1 The past participle
1.2 The choice of auxiliary
1.3 Agreement
1.4-5 Placement of negatives/adverbs.

1. La première journée de classe, Odile (se renseigner) _____.

2. Puis elle (régler) _____ les frais d'inscription.

3. Ensuite, elle (vite aller) _____ à la Faculté de droit.

4. Elle (passer) _____ un examen d'entrée mais elle (ne pas réussir) _____ .

2. The *imparfait* is formed by removing the -ons from the first-person plural (nous) form of the present tense. To this stem you add the imperfect endings:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | -ais | -ions |
| | -ais | -iez |
| | -ait | -aient |
| parler: | je parlais, tu parlais, il/elle/on parlait, nous parlions, vous parliez, ils/elles parlaient | |
| finir: | je finissais, tu finissais, il finissait, nous finissions, vous finissiez, ils finissaient | |
| attendre: | j'attendais, tu attendais, il attendait, nous attendions, vous attendiez, ils attendaient | |

There is only one irregular verb: être

j'étais, tu étais, il/elle/on était, nous étions, vous étiez, ils/elles étaient

*Verbs without a nous form: falloir -> fallait  pleuvoir -> pleuvait

*Verbs irregular in the present form the *imparfait* in the same way as regular verbs:

| | |
|---|---|
| boire: | je bois, nous buvons -> je buvais, tu buvais, etc. |
| préférer: | je préfère, nous préférons -> je préférais, tu préférais, etc. |
| acheter: | j'achète, nous achetons -> j'achetais, tu achetais, etc. |

*Verbs ending in -cer and -ger keep the spelling changes to maintain pronunciation:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| placer: | je plaçais, tu plaçais, il plaçais, ils plaçaient | BUT nous placions, vous placiez |
| nager: | je nageais, tu nageais, il nageais, ils nageaient | BUT nous nagions, vous nagiez |

*Verbs ending in -ier have two i's in the nous/vous forms: oublier, rire, étudier

| | |
|---|---|
| étudier: | j'étudiais, tu étudiais, il étudiait, nous étudiions, vous étudiiez, ils étudiaient |

PRATIQUE 2—FORMATION OF *IMPARFAIT*

Review the formation of the *imparfait*:

1. Quand je/j' (être) _____ étudiant, nous (avoir) _____ tous nos cours dans un amphithéâtre.

2. Il (falloir) _____ arriver tôt pour pouvoir s'asseoir.

3. Combien de cours (suivre) _____ -tu normalement?

4. On (rédiger) _____ des mémoires d'une quinzaine de pages.

(B) USING the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*

When talking about the past, the perspective one assumes is central to the distinction between the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*. Up to this point your textbook has been careful to focus on one perspective or the other. Often, however, the two perspectives appear together in the same sentence and certainly in a paragraph or story.

As a general rule, the *passé composé* is used to report events that were completed in the past. The focus may be on the beginning of an event (*Il a commencé à étudier*), the end of an event (*Il a fini de préparer son exposé*), or on the event from the beginning to the end (*Il a établit son emploi du temps*). On the other hand, when the focus is on the middle of the action, with no concern for when it started or ended, the *imparfait* is used. (Il faisait froid) Think of verbs in the *passé composé* as moving the storyline forward (the backbone or *colonne* vertébrale) and verbs in the *imparfait* as the descriptive filler (the flesh or *chair*) used to enhance the listener's ability to picture more fully the circumstances of the past event being described. This distinction will be presented in three ways:

(1) As a metaphor to guide you as you analyze and create past time discourse
(2) As a general explanation of when to use the preterite or the imperfect
(3) As an explanation of how events take place in time.

(1) The metaphor

The backbone/flesh (*colonne/chair*) metaphor can help you understand the relationship between the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*. Think of the backbone (*la colonne vertébrale*) as the information that moves a story forward, a series of completed actions. As each event ends (as represented with an X), a new event begins, which in turn moves the story forward in time. Notice that, in the events narrated below, each verb in the *passé composé* moves the storyline forward in chronological order, from the point of waking up to the point of going back to bed.

| | |
|---|---|
| Annie s'est réveillée à 6h30. | X |
| Elle s'est mal habillée. | X |
| Elle est sortie de son appartement à 7h05. | X |
| Elle a raté le bus. | X |
| Elle est rentrée. | X |

Elle s'est remise au lit. X

Verbs in the *imparfait* do not introduce new events into the story and therefore do not move the storyline forward. The *imparfait* is connected to a time (which can be a moment or an extended interval of time) that has been or will be referred to in the preterite. In other words, the *imparfait* stops the storyline to fill in descriptive details or to "flesh out" the story. Hence, the reference to the *imparfait* as the flesh (la *chair*) of the story. Notice how the imperfect adds details to the above story.

Annie avait toujours sommeil.
Elle était fatiguée.
Elle devait se rendre au campus de bonne heure.
Les couleurs de ses vêtements n'allaient pas bien ensemble.
Il pleuvait et il faisait froid.
Annie était de mauvaise humeur.
Le bus partait.

Notice how the *imparfait* refers to a time specified by the *passé composé* storyline.

At 6:30 when Annie woke up, she was still sleepy and tired.
She needed to be on campus early so she got dressed but the colors of her clothes clashed.
At 7:05 when she left her apartment, it was raining and cold and Annie was in a bad mood.
The bus was already leaving so she missed it.
She went back inside and went back to bed.

## PRATIQUE 3 – USING METAPHOR (SYNTHESIS)

Now use this metaphor of *colonne/chair* to put the whole story together in French with the pictures.

**Une journée qui tourne court.** Racontez au passé la mini-histoire d'Annie filmée ci-dessous.

1. se réveiller. avoir toujours sommeil. être fatiguée

2. s'habiller. mettre une jupe et un chemisier. les couleurs ne pas aller bien ensemble

3. sortir. pleuvoir. faire froid. être de mauvaise humeur. le bus ne pas arriver

4. rentrer dans son appartement. se remettre au lit



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PRATIQUE 4—USING METAPHOR (ANALYSIS)
This metaphor is helpful in analyzing existing texts in French and it will also be very helpful when you create your own stories in the past. Read the following narrative. On a separate sheet of paper indicate the *colonne* and the *chair* found in the narration using the previous example as a model.

> L'année passée, je suis allée au Québec pour assister au Carnaval. Comme il n'y avait pas de vol direct, j'ai pris l'avion de Dallas et j'ai passé par Chicago. Le vol était terrible parce qu'il y avait du vent et l'avion tremblait. J'étais malade quand je suis arrivée à Montréal. Je n'ai trouvé personne que je connaissais. J'ai attendu une demi-heure et puis j'ai cherché un taxi pour m'amener à l'hôtel. Il faisait très froid et il neigeait. Je n'ai pas réussi à avoir un taxi; il y en avait un ou deux qui circulaient mais ils ne se sont pas arrêtés. J'ai fini par prendre le bus. Quel désastre de début mais mes vacances ont fini très bien. Je me suis bien amusée finalement.

HINT: If you are confused about what happened in a particular passage, take out the verbs in the *passé composé* so you have the backbone of the story.

(2) Usage chart
Here are some of the more common uses of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*:

| *PASSE COMPOSE* | *IMPARFAIT* |
|---|---|
| a. completed action | a. middle of an action with no focus on beginning or end |
| b. completed actions in succession | b. habitual action |
| c. completed action with specific time period or number of times indicated | c. description of physical and emotional states, including past opinion and desires |
| d. summary or reaction | d. background information such as time, weather, age |

Let's examine these four main points of contrast more closely.

*Passé composé*

a. Completed actions may be those that happened and ended quickly: Elle s'est assise. They may refer to the beginning or end of an action: Il s'est décidé d'y aller. Ils ont fini leurs devoirs. Or they may refer to actions that started and ended in the past: Elle a rangé toute la maison.

b. Completed actions in succession are a series of actions, one ending before the other begins: Elle s'est levée, s'est vite lavée, et s'est habillée.

c. Completed action with specific time period or number of times: J'ai passé 2 ans à Paris. Ils sont retournés à Paris 3 fois l'année passée.

d. Summary or reaction statement to a series of events packaged as a whole: J'ai aimé ce film--il a été extra (overall reaction to picture as a whole)

*Imparfait*

a. Middle of an action with no focus on the beginning or end. The *imparfait* is used to express what was in the process of happening at the time of the story in the past: Je faisais les achats pendant qu'elle faisait le ménage.

b. Habitual action in the past is one that used to occur when no definite length of time is mentioned: Nous mangions toujours notre petit déjeuner.

c. Description of physical and emotional states, past opinions and desires, characteristic states in the past: Il était grand et beau. Il voulait s'en aller. Il était toujours très nerveux.

d. Background information to set the scene of the action: Il était 3h de l'après-midi mais le ciel était sombre. En 1978 elle avait 13 ans.

*Note that the imperfect can also be used to refer to the future in the past (often in indirect statement): Elle m'a dit qu'elle allait se coucher tout de suite.

PRATIQUE 5--USING THE USAGE CHART

In these exercises, indicate which of the four uses discussed above are being expressed.

*passé composé*

1. Jean et Robert ont commencé leurs études universitaires en 1990. _____ (a,b,c,ou d)

2. Le jour qu'ils sont allés en classe a été fantastique. _____ _____

3. Tous leurs amis sont inscrits aussi, se sont renseignés sur les cours et ont établi leurs horaires. _____ _____ _____

4. Ils ont assisté à leur cours magistral 10 fois avant de le sécher. _____

*imparfait*

1. Le premier jour de classe, Jean et Robert étaient un peu nerveux. _____

2. Il n'y avait plus de place dans l'amphithéâtre. _____

3. Jean cherchait 2 places pendant que Robert parlait au prof. _____

4. Jean toujours pensait plus sérieusement aux détails importants que Robert. _____

(3) How events take place in time. You may use the following symbols to help visualize the usage of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*:

at a specific point in time
Elle a dit non. X

sequential
Elle a regardé sa montre, elle a fermé la télé, puis elle est partie. XXX

continuous, in progress ∿∿
Je jouais du Chopin.

continuous, interrupted by another action
Tu faisais tes devoirs quand tu t'es endormi(e). ∿X∿

*The usual translations of the verbs into English expressions may also give you clues on the use of the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*:

J'ai parlé = I spoke, I did speak, I have spoken
Je parlais = I spoke, but also I was speaking, I used to speak

PRATIQUE 6
Next to the sentences of Practique 4, place the appropriate symbol (X, , X ) and also the probable English translation of the verb

(C) Verbs with DIFFERENT MEANINGS in the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*. These are verbs whose meaning changes depending on how they are used:

| PASSE COMPOSE | *IMPARFAIT* |
|---|---|
| Il a connu Marie au lycée. (he met her) | Il connaissait Marie au lycée. (he knew her) |
| Elle a su la réponse. (she found out) | Elle savait la réponse. (she knew) |
| J'ai dû partir avant minuit. (I had to, must have) | Je devais partir avant minuit. (I was supposed to–but maybe didn't) |
| Tu n'as pas voulu aller en ville. (you refused) | Tu ne voulais pas aller en ville. (you didn't want) |
| Ils ont pu partir. (they were able to, and DID) | Ils pouvaient partir. (they were able to, but DIDN'T) |

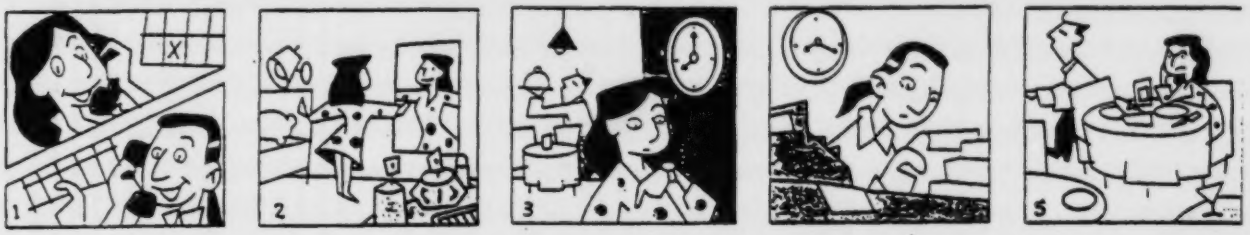
An answer key to all at-home practices is included in the handout packet.

## APPENDIX B
## PRACTICE/PROCEDURALIZATION

### PRATIQUE 7--CONSTRUCTING STORIES

***Une soirée mémorable***

Look at the cartoon and tell what happened to Jules and Mireille last week. Match the sentences below to the pictures. Then write some of your own sentences that logically add to the story. Finally, write how the evening ended.




a. C'était une robe très élégante, blanche aux grands pois noirs.
b. Elle était furieuse.
c. Jules a pris rendez-vous pour vendredi soir à 8h.
d. Ils se sont parlé pendant une heure.
e. Jules a téléphoné à Mireille mardi soir à 8h15.
f. Elle a mis une jolie robe pour sortir avec Jules.
g. Mireille est arrivée au restaurant à l'heure.
h. Jules travaillait tard à son bureau.
i. Ils étaient contents tous les deux.
j. Vendredi, Mireille s'est habillée avant 7h.
k. Mireille attendait Jules impatiemment.

### PRATIQUE 9--COMMUNICATIVE TASK

"Tu ne vas jamais croire ce qui m'est arrivé hier soir. Il faisait noir et je courais dans un grand forêt parce qu'un monstre me poursuivait. Tout d'un coup, Harrison Ford est apparu. Il a arrêté le monstre et il l'a tué avec un grand couteau. Je voulais remercier Harrison donc je l'ai embrassé. Malheurusement je me suis réveillée brusquement parce que le téléphone sonnait. Je me suis rendu compte que je rêvais."

| | col X | *chaire* ∿∧ | | col X | *chaire* ∿∿ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| arriver | ____ | ____ | faire | ____ | ____ |
| courir | ____ | ____ | poursuivre | ____ | ____ |
| apparaître | ____ | ____ | arrêter | ____ | ____ |
| tuer | ____ | ____ | vouloir | ____ | ____ |
| embrasser | ____ | ____ | se réveiller | ____ | ____ |
| sonner | ____ | ____ | se rendre compte | ____ | ____ |
| rêver | ____ | ____ | | | |

## APPENDIX C
## PRODUCTION/AUTOMIZATION

PRATIQUE 10--NARRATING IN THE PAST

OPENING

Introduces the story into a conversation:

*"Il était une fois"*
*Je me rapelle...*
*Une fois...*

EVENTS X
*COLONNE* PC

listing in order: *D'abord*, *puis*, *ensuite*

adverbs: *soudain*, *tout d'un coup*, *brusquemment*

DETAILS/BACKGROUND

*CHAIR* IMP

adds emotion: *et le pire était...*, *C'était incroyable,*

etc.

adverbs: *généralement,* *souvent*, *d''habitude, toujours*, *rarement*, *pendant que*, *quelquefois*

CLOSING

Finishes the story

*Enfin/Finalement...*
*Et c'est pourquoi je ne vais jamais oublier...*
*Voilà pourquoi je déteste...*

Written task-based test

Of all the stories that we heard in class and that you took notes on, write your favorite (*En français, bien sûr,* and it can't be your own). Remember all the guidelines we've been talking about in the choice of *passé composé/imparfait* and in their formation. Write at least 10 sentences. Then in English, explain in a couple of sentences why you liked this story so much.

Oral task-based test: TELL your favorite story that you heard in class.

Discrete point test

cloze test.

# *FAQs: Learning Languages Through Drama*

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*Although drama has played a role in language classrooms for more than three decades, theatre techniques and plays have not been fully taken advantage of for learning second and foreign languages. Using a format of frequently asked questions about teaching with drama, this article will explore the evolution of this approach, its benefits and drawbacks, and a wide gamut of theatrical activities than can be used to teach languages. I hope to convince other teachers and graduate students in languages and education to try some of these techniques with their students.*

## HOW DOES DRAMA FIT INTO THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING?

In the communicative approach to language teaching, students use language for a purpose--to convey real meaning and to solve real problems. Drama is a communicative language-learning technique because is student-centered and meaning-based. With theatre activities, students use language in a genuine way in a context that engages them. The idea of "theatre in the language classroom" encompasses everything from improvisation and role-play activities that encourage fluency, to reading and discussing plays as literature, to producing full-length plays that require careful attention to language and pronunciation while developing problem-solving skills in the target language.

## HOW HAS THE IDEA OF DRAMA IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM DEVELOPED?

The use of drama in language classrooms is not a new concept; it has played a small but consistent role in language teaching in Britain and the United States since the 1970's. This section will very briefly trace the evolution of drama as a language-teaching tool.

### 1970's and 1980's

The early, most well-known advocates of drama in the L1 classroom were Heathcote (collected writings, 1984) and Bolton (collected writings, 1984), who encouraged teachers to integrate the theatre into all that they did. Bolton, in particular, championed the use of drama in classes for all subjects, making it "the centre of the curriculum." These ideas soon transferred to L2 practitioners and gained many proponents.

As early as 1973, in fact, Hines commented that drama, and especially role play, "has long been recognized as a valuable and valid means of mastering a language" (ii). Pioneers in the field of ESL/EFL include Via (1976), Maley and Duff (1982), and Smith (1984), who all published books based on their experiences as language teachers who have used drama in their classrooms. Their

* Presented at the Texas Foreign Language Education Conference 2000 (TexFLEC 2000), University of Texas at Austin, March 31-April 1, 2000.

books are a mix of theory and practice. Via's students have acted in plays during his whole career as an ESL teacher. Smith speaks to practicing teachers and develops an analogy between L1 actors and L2 students as well as provides many communicative theatrical activities. Maley and Duff also collect myriad activities and offer advice on how to use them.

These authors are followed by more and more others who also encourage the use of drama in the language classroom. Wessels' *Drama* (1987) is a very practical book that provides rationale for using drama as well as a number of activities. She also offers suggestions of how a class might go about staging a play in the target language and describes one such experience that she had with a class. Porter Ladousse (1987) published a similarly useful book, hers devoted to role plays, with justification and many examples.

**1990s-Present**

Some professional books also discuss the theories behind theatre techniques and language learning. Half of the volume edited by Byram and Fleming (1998) is devoted to describing how teachers have used drama to promote cultural understanding and awareness among their students. In a different vein, Kao and O'Neill (1998) explain the technique and the merits of process drama, an extended role play activity that uses integrated skills to involve the whole class. Brauer (in press) has edited a volume about the connections among language, writing, and drama.

Books with practical drama activities for teachers continue to emerge as well. Whiteson (1996) is the editor of a volume of activities in the *TESOL New Ways* series written by practicing language teachers. These are games, lessons, and exercises that are based on theatrical techniques. Another book by Hess (in press), *All the World's a Stage,* will offer more suggestions of activities. Other general books for teachers also include suggestions for theatrical activities, like Woodward's *Fun With Grammar* (1996), written to accompany the Azar ESL/EFL grammar books. Rinvoluccri (1984) also has some creative ideas.

**Textbooks**

In the field of ESL/EFL, some textbooks take advantage of what drama can offer. Rathburn's *Taking Center Stage* (1997) is an advanced content-based text about the history of drama and plays that also encourages writing and acting. *The Play's the Thing* (1998), by Whiteson and Horovitz, is an intermediate text with a whole language approach to ESL/EFL, using short scenes from classic plays. Finally, the *Best Plays* (1998) anthologies are suitable for students of English and exist at three levels (beginning, intermediate, and advanced), offering one-act plays and acts taken from full-length plays with unmodified language, including *Trifles, Driving Miss Daisy,* and *Our Town.*

**Other Resources for Professionals**

After quickly exhausting this list of books about drama and language teaching, I must conclude that

most textbooks, SLA, and theory books for professionals, in the field of ESL/EFL, at least, don't pay enough attention to drama's prospects for language teaching and learning.

The outlook for other forums for professionals is similarly bleak. At the TESOL 2000 international convention, while there were nearly one dozen presentations listed in the program book about teaching with drama, only half of the presenters showed up. Professional journals like *TESOL Quarterly* and *The French Review* have published only a handful of articles about teaching with drama (see Dickson (1989), and Haggstrom (1992) for examples of teachers who have used drama to teach French); the *TESOL Journal* "Tips for Teachers" section has occasional descriptions about successful role plays and drama activities (see Ernst-Slavit and Wenger (1998) for an example).

Other forums that reflect what classroom practitioners are currently doing, like listserves, have not yielded much information recently either. However, a February 2000 discussion of role play on TESL-L offered suggestions of new ones to do with students, and it is worth noting is that these exchanges did not question the value of these drama exercises--each person who posted seemed to be a strong proponent of this type of activity. Suggestions for games that incorporate theatrical elements have also come up on TESL-L. On the other hand, no one has recently commented on drama as a technique. In fact, when I responded to a post asking for ideas of communicative activities by describing some drama games and requesting other suggestions, there were no responses to my message. FL-Teach, another popular listserve for teachers and professionals, also has not lately dealt with drama--the closest they get is discussing Total Physical Response Storytelling. When I posted to FL-Teach in the summer of 2000, asking for suggestions and advice for directing a play in French at a university, I received only one response, off-list. [To join TESL-L, send an e-mail to

listserv@cunyvm.cuny.edu

and type "subscribe TESL-L Firstname Lastname" (don't type the quotation marks) in the message area. To join FL-TEACH, send an e-mail to

listserv@ubvm.cc.buffalo.edu

and type "subscribe FL-TEACH Firstname Lastname" (don't type the quotation marks) in the message area.]

## What Are The Benefits Of Using Drama In The Language Classroom?

The most immediately apparent benefit of using dramatic activities with L2/FL students is that they acquire and practice new vocabulary and grammatical structures. Equally important, the affective filter is lowered: increases in self-esteem, self-confidence, and spontaneity often result from theatre activities in the classroom, thus reducing inhibitions, feelings of alienation, and senstivity to rejection (Via 1976, Stern 1980, Kao &

O'Neill 1998). Other psychological and social benefits include developing problem-solving skills, working well in groups, and taking more risks. Additionally, students explore variation of register and style, and develop conversational skills such as turn taking, topic changing, and leave taking.

Perhaps the most important facet of using drama in the language classroom, however, is at the core of all these ideas: the students are learning the language because they are practicing it with communicative activities in a real context. In drama, expressing and understanding is what is important. Moreover, students frequently come to better understand and appreciate the culture(s) of the target language. And overall, I would like to emphasize how much the students and teachers like it: most of my sources that discuss the theories behind this approach use the words "fun" or "enjoy" when describing it.

## Are There Any Potential Drawbacks To Using Drama In The Language Classroom?

Why, then, has the majority of the language-teaching world not embraced drama as a language-learning technique? Some possible drawbacks, which I will refute or offer suggestions for mitigating, include students' backgrounds, teacher preparation, and the perception of drama as not serious.

### Individual Differences

It is true that students differ widely in background, abilities, personality, confidence, motivation, and expectations, and that acting in plays may not meet the needs of all the students all the time. However, this does not mean that certain drama activities cannot be useful teaching tools with many students. Theatre can be one component of a class that focuses on one aspect of the language, like grammar; it can be part of a content-based class, like role plays in a Business English course (see Rebscher (1998) for one example of this); it can be used to complement the plays studied in a college-level foreign language literature class; and it can be offered as a stand-alone integrated skills class. Making courses such as the latter optional, not mandatory, means that those who are not comfortable with the prospect of doing theatre do not have to sign up.

To help overcome students' fears of speaking and performing, I would suggest easing them into drama activities—don't require them to "act" in front of their peers with no preparation or no warning. You can begin with low-key activities, like pantomime games designed to elicit certain vocabulary words or key grammatical structures, and work up to activities that necessitate more language. Keep the class atmosphere supportive by applauding and complimenting and congratulating the students who participate. Create an environment where students feel comfortable discussing and volunteering, where they know that teachers and peers will not ridicule them when they make mistakes. In fact, you can thank them for making mistakes that lead to productive "teaching mo-

ments." Also, be aware of your student population when doing activities that require more physical interaction, for some students may be unable or unwilling to participate.

**Teacher Background**

Another argument that I hear from language teachers is that if they themselves are not actors and directors, there's no way they can teach their students to be. But you don't have to be an "actor" to lead your students in improvisation games or help them recognize good intonation when they read from a script. Besides, as teachers, we put on a show every time we are in front of our students, and the classroom becomes our stage.

Additionally, teachers who were not trained to teach communicatively may shy away from drama. But incorporating certain aspects of the theatre into your teaching does not require that you change your entire teaching philosophy—you just add new ideas to your "bag of tricks."

**Student Skepticism**

However, students may be as skeptical as their teachers about the benefits of drama in the language classroom. Because our students at first may not see it as learning, we need show them that it is fun but not unstructured. Highlight what they're learning all along—point out what skills, structures, language they're using. After the activity, you can do a "debriefing" session where you emphasize what they have learned and practiced.

**Commotion in the Classroom**

A final problem that I have heard people express about drama in the language classroom is that chaos and noise are inevitable. Well, so is laughter—and I don't see that as a drawback.

## How Can I Use Drama In My ESL Classroom?

The first half of this article was designed to convince current and future language teachers to use drama in their classrooms. The second half will describe a number of different ways to integrate drama into your teaching, beginning with very simple activities and culminating in full-fledged theatre projects. This list is by no means comprehensive; it is limited to what I have used successfully as a teacher. And while the majority of these activities were carried out in an ESL setting (an intensive English program) with adults who plan to enroll in an American university, I believe they will carry over into other L2 and FL contexts.

**Pantomime**

Pantomime is a good place to start. Like the familiar party game of Charades, it is simple and fun because it is non-threatening to the student performing. He doesn't have to worry about speaking—it is his classmates who must produce the language. You can use pantomimes to elicit specific vocabulary and grammar from rest of class or to have other students describe what is being acted out, which encourages fluency.

Some examples of pantomimes that I have used in an intermediate grammar class include the following: differentiating verb tenses like the simple past and the past progressive (students mime actions like washing a car which suddenly starts rolling down a hill or washing a dog that suddenly bites) or the simple past and the past perfect (for example, the students act out a situation like "the child had already eaten all the cookies when Mom got off the phone"). These situations require that the students watching produce the correct verb tenses, formed correctly and used correctly to contrast with the others.

**Jazz Chants**

Jazz chants, popularized by Graham for ESL/EFL, certainly have dramatic elements; in fact, some are written as fairy tales to act out, some as role plays. Students seem to enjoy jazz chants, and they appreciate having a script to follow, which focuses their attention on the language, particularly supersegmentals. (See Graham (1991) and Graham (1993) for examples of dramatic jazz chants.)

**Role Play and Simulations**

Teachers seem to be very comfortable with role plays, traditionally using them to practice vocabulary appropriate to certain situations (i.e., in the airport, in a restaurant). But role plays do not need to be limited only to this function. They can illustrate different levels of register, for example, when students write or act out the same basic situation or conflict (such as trying to get an appointment with a busy doctor) in two different ways—rude and ultra-polite.

Role plays also seem to lend themselves well to teaching modals. For instance, two students sit side-by-side in front of the class; one is learning to drive while the other is trying to teach her. As the driver asks questions (using modals) and makes mistakes, the teacher yells out what she's doing wrong and how to fix it (using modals). The class should be encouraged both to take note of which modals are used and to call out other pieces of advice to the driver. This can get quite lively, especially if the driver exaggerates her problems.

Moreover, role plays work well in reading and writing classes; they can be used to demonstrate comprehension of both fiction and non-fiction texts. A student (or a pair or a group) can assume the roles of the people they read about, while others ask questions and they respond in character. Or groups of students can act out what they have studied. The latter is especially effective with short stories that the students have enjoyed reading. When there are not enough roles to go around, the other students become key parts of the set, reacting to what is said, moving when appropriate.

I have also made short role plays required in my listening/speaking classes, where the students are supposed to study idioms. Each pair of students is responsible for choosing an interesting phrase that seems important and writing a very short skit that illustrates and uses the idiom. Their classmates then try to

identify the phrase and explain its meaning. When each class begins this way, it quickly becomes a ritual that we all look forward to.

**Fairy Tales and Folk Tales**

Fairy tales and folk tales easily turn into skits (which can be written and edited as well as acted out spontaneously) because they draw from stock characters and familiar plots. Perhaps fairy tales are best used with FL students who have a common background and common knowledge of these tales. For example, a group of my high school students in France first acted out "Cinderella" and "Hansel and Gretel," and then wrote a play that combined the two of them—to show after the "happily ever after"—and because these girls were enamored of American television, the conflict was solved when X-Files Agents Mulder and Scully intervened (and then Cinderella ran off with George Clooney). My ESL students, on the other hand, have read and acted out fables they studied in reading classes like "The Fox and the Crow." Grammar students have acted out "Goldilocks and the Three Bears" to emphasize the past perfect progressive ("Someone's been eating my porridge....").

**Improvisation**

Many theatre games that actors use lend themselves well to language classrooms. The emphasis is on fluency and creativity, little preparation or materials are needed, and depending on how much control the teacher allots to the students, the games can be highly structured or very free. In an advanced listening/speaking class, my students did improv for an entire class period once a week, and clamored for more.

Most of the ideas I used were adapted from Maley and Duff (1982), Wessels (1987), and Spolin (1999). Icebreakers and warm-up activities with dramatic elements also worked well, as did simple games like Freeze and having the students invent advertisements selling an object in the classroom for a new purpose. (In Freeze, two players begin acting out a situation provided by the audience. It should involve a lot of movement. Another actor calls out "freeze!" and the two on stage stop moving. The third actor takes the place of one of them and begins a different scene, this one suggested by the positions of the actors.)

The activity that my students have perhaps liked the most is The Last Scene. The premise is that the students have walked onto a stage empty except for a table with six objects on it. The audience is still in their seats, and the actors must continue the play for them. The students must decide, based on the objects, what the play is about, what the title is, who the characters are, and how the play ends. After a short period to plan and rehearse, they present the last scene of the play.

**Reading Plays**

By "reading" plays, I mean both studying them as literature and reading them out loud. In many foreign language classes in the United

States, it is common to read a play, or scenes from a classic play, eventually. However, rarely is this play acted out, and rarely does this happen in the ESL classroom. Yet what better way to understand the beauty of the language than by participating in such carefully crafted dialogue, and how better to expose them to the culture? Additionally, Whiteson, a champion of drama in ESL, explains that "by introducing students to English drama and real literature, we pay them the compliment that they are capable of enjoying the best that English has to offer" (1996, p. 9).

And after reading and discussing plays, the class can move on to reader's theatre. In this activity, students sit on stools, script in hand, in front of the audience. Because they are not moving around, they must take care to make their voices very clear and expressive. This is a low pressure situation for the students, because they are not required to memorize lines or blocking, but it is still excellent for improving pronunciation and intonation. Students in my intermediate university French class who read *Merlusse* by Marcel Pagnol (1935) delighted in playing the roles of little boys and mean teachers.

**Watching or Listening to Plays**

It is important to encourage students to attend plays, at least in L2 environments, where it is easy to find plays in the target language. Field trips to theatres could also become part of a listening/speaking class or culture class, where the students must prepare questions, take notes, and then write reactions. When a whole class attends a play together, it is likely that they could receive a backstage tour and an interview with some of the actors, or at least a group discount on the tickets.

When going to live theatrical performances is impossible, students still can get a lot out of watching on plays on video. They could watch plays they have studied or look at others as a basis for listening and speaking activities. Some plays are also available on audiocassette—Lucille Fletcher's *Sorry, Wrong Number* (1948), for example, which was on the 1940's radio program *Suspense*, and Lou Spaventa's *Stranger in Town* (1992), which was written especially for ESL students and recorded by profession actors.

**Scene Study**

Scene study is another theatre activity that brings many benefits. This involves selecting and intensively studying short scenes, which are then presented before an audience. It requires much reading, discussion, and analysis as well as pronunciation practice with word stress, thought groups, and intonation. For the teacher who wants to do some kind of a performance with her students, the logistics are much easier than trying to find the perfect play at the correct level with the correct number of male and female parts; it is also easier, less time-consuming, and less daunting for a few groups of students to prepare a ten-minute scene than it is for one large group to rehearse a longer play. And the performances can be in

front of a paying audience in a theatre or in front of a group of peers. The French high school students I worked with really enjoyed picking out their own scenes and "directing" themselves with little input from me; then they memorized and performed in front of the others students in the English club. (See Bayoff (1986) and Fancy (1991) for descriptions of American and Canadian college students who did scene study in their French classes.)

**Staging Plays**

Staging plays is a large project that can be done with as many or as few bells and whistles as the teacher/director wishes. It can be a full-length production with lights, sounds, sets, costumes, and memorized lines in a theatre, or a one-act play done in a room with scripts in hand, depending on the context of the class and the time and money limitations. Producing plays in other languages has been described in Wessels (1987), Smith (1984), and Augot et al. (1993), but not recommended anywhere else that I've seen. However, I feel that the intensive work with language that ensues is very valuable, as is the pride that it instills in the students.

When I taught an ESL drama class, the culminating project was a performance of one of the plays we had studied. The students chose Edmond Rostand's *The Romancers* (1915), a one-act parody of the story of Romeo and Juliet. They had very positive reactions to the play: in a representative response on the teacher evaluation, one student explained "I really enjoyed acting it was a big step for me. I feel that I gained confident in Speaking and I am more enthusiastic and optimistic thanks to you." Another student remarked that "it is surprising that it is easier for [her] to play in English than in Japanese."

I am currently directing a play for a university French club: *La Cantatrice Chauve* by Eugène Ionesco (1954). After the two-month rehearsal period, it will be performed in French at a small salon-style university theatre with surtitles projected above the stage for the non-francophone members of the audience. All of the preparation—auditions, rehearsals, decisions about lights, sound, costumes, set, and props—takes place in French, and all the actors, techies, and translators receive independent study credit in French.

**Writing and Staging Plays**

Having the students create their own original play is not something that I've encountered in the literature, which is unfortunate, because it seems to be a very productive and exciting way to learn the language. If the thought of writing an entire play from scratch seems overwhelming, there are other ways to go about writing an original piece. For example, modifying stories or books into plays or skits is not too difficult, because the plot and characters (and frequently dialogue) already exist. For example, high school students I once observed at a French camp had written a short play about the characters from the comic strip "Peanuts." Students can

also write scenes that happen before the beginning of the play or in between acts to practice writing dialogue and doing character development. The students in my ESL drama class wrote whole acts to add to the end of *Stranger in Town*; they then modified the language and the ending of *The Romancers*, because they want to make it funnier and more accessible to other ESL students in the audience. They also changed the gender of most of the characters and created an entirely new character so that each student (all female) could have a part in the play.

**Benefits of These Activities**

Overall, all these techniques require that students communicate in English to succeed. At the same time, they are internalizing the language, improving intonation and pronunciation, and having fun. What's more, these activities can serve as a springboard to writing and to the other skills.

## What Directions Should Drama In The Language-Learning Classrooms Take In The Future?

**Research**

While it would be hard to pin down the quantifiable benefits of doing plays and drama activities, I would like to see studies that try to examine psychological and linguistic results. My students in many different classes have responded favorably on their evaluation forms, but just saying "I liked the games" is not enough proof that their language improved because of it.

**Reading and Writing Plays**

Students should not be deprived of the joys that drama can bring and of the great feeling of satisfaction that can come from creative writing. They should be allowed to take ownership of the language. Besides, one of the best ways to edit one's own writing is by reading it aloud, and drama is the perfect medium. When my students write scripts and act them out in groups, they frequently can hear when the grammar and punctuation is wrong, and they receive suggestions from peers of how to fix it.

**CALL and Drama**

Technology makes so much available that language teachers. And as more and more of our students are computer-literate, they expect to use technology in their language classes too. There is some drama-related ESL/EFL software, in fact: *Hollywood High* (1996) provides sets and characters, while students write dialogue that the animated characters on the screen speak; *Karaoke Conversation* (Bradin 1994) is listening software that enables students to record themselves taking part in an onscreen role play.

Besides software programs, there are film clips on the web, listserve discussions about the theatre, radio shows on audio files, research possibilities on the web, and much more. My ESL drama course had a web page and a class web forum where the students responded to the

plays we read and the activities we did. You are welcome to visit our page at the following address:

http://lamar.colostate.edu/~sdodson

**Integrated Skills Drama Classes**

I feel that the various language skills should not be taught separately, for it is rare that we as language users only employ grammar or only speaking or only writing. Drama is an ideal way to bring the skills of grammar, reading, writing, speaking, listening, and pronunciation together in a course where the focus is not on form but rather fluency and meaning.

"Language and pronunciation through theatre" is the ESL drama class that I taught at an intensive English program. In this course, students read and analyzed one-act plays; learned about the history and the conventions of American drama; toured theatres; attended plays; interviewed a playwright; explored improvisation activities; interacted with American students who volunteered in the class; and modified and performed a one-act play. All along, they wrote their reactions and ideas and their own scenes in a computer web forum journal, learning vocabulary, practicing pronunciation, and gaining fluency and confidence.

## Conclusion

As a language learner and student of the theatre, I had always wanted to combine the two to help me practice the language, but could never convince my teachers of its merit. Therefore, when I began to teach, I was determined to try it with my students. Through the activities I've done with these brave and creative students and through the research I've done on my own, I have come to see that theatre provides myriad ways for students to learn and appreciate language in meaningful, communicative contexts. I urge you to try it too!

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# *Using Video to Teach for Sociolinguistic Competence in the Foreign Language Classroom**

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*This paper examines the findings from a classroom research project that involved developing the sociolinguistic competence of learners of first-year Spanish. This project used input enhancement techniques that required the learners to actively view video. Research shows that native speakers are more sensitive to sociolinguistic errors than to grammatical errors made by nonnative speakers. Therefore, it is hoped that educating language learners about sociolinguistic differences will result in their having more positive relationships in future contacts with speakers of other languages. The data from the study are encouraging regarding learners' ability to both recognize and use more culturally appropriate linguistic forms once they are overtly made aware of sociolinguistic differences.*

## INTRODUCTION

The focus of the classroom research project described in this paper was to assess the effect of implementing input enhancement strategies that encourage active video viewing on the development of the learners' sociolinguistic competence in a second-language (L2). To date, studies have been conducted in this area that employ video, audiotape, role play, and classroom meta-pragmatic discussion as independent variables to assess the development of sociolinguistic competence (Overfield, 1996) and that employ mainly meta-pragmatic classroom discussion (Pearson, forthcoming). The uniqueness of this current project is that it attempted to hold classroom discussion as constant as possible while isolating the effect of independent viewing of video with consciousness-raising activities on the L2 learning process.

Consciousness-raising has been defined as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" as opposed to "natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic" (Sharwood-Smith, 1981). The term "consciousness-raising," which refers to processes occurring in the learner's brain, is often replaced with the term "input enhancement" (Sharwood-Smith, 1993), which refers to what the instructor is doing to manipulate the learning process. This redefinition came about because it is much easier to document what the instructor is doing externally than to document what the learner is doing internally. The first studies that looked at input enhancement in the L2 context examined the acquisition of grammatical structures (Gass and Madden, 1985; Schachter, 1988; Sharwood-Smith, 1981, 1986; Tomlin and Villa, 1994). These researchers concluded that focusing the learner's attention on specific features of the L2 did increase acquisition of those features.

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Since Hymes (1968, 1971) coined the term "communicative competence," L2 instructors have been increasingly interested in areas of linguistic competence other than grammar. As defined, communicative competence is composed of three abilities. These are grammatical competence, strategic competence, and sociolinguistic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1984). These researchers later added discourse competence. This paper examines the area of sociolinguistic competence, which these researchers defined as the ability to use language appropriately in a given social context. Pragmatic competence is a closely related concept. While Canale and Swain proposed that pragmatic competence is a component of sociolinguistic competence, other researchers (Bachman, cited in Hadley, 1993) have proposed that sociolinguistic competence is a component of pragmatic competence. Because of this ambiguity of terminology in the research, the two terms will be used interchangeably in this paper.

Soon after some researchers began looking at the connection between input enhancement strategies and grammar acquisition, other researchers, especially Schmidt (1990), began theorizing about their application to the development of sociolinguistic competence. Other research (Ochs, 1979; Gleason, 1980; Bruner, 1981; Becker 1990, 1994) has documented that, while the bulk of the grammar of a child's first language (L1) is not overtly taught, the pragmatics of the L1 are overtly taught by the child's caretakers. This difference seems to imply that input enhancement techniques may be even more important in the area of L2 pragmatics than in the area of L2 grammar.

Unlike grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence is much harder to teach in the classroom setting. It may require contextualized, interactive language such as that found in video (Koike, 1989). Fortunately, modern technology has made video much more accessible for L2 instruction. Not only are many classrooms now equipped with VCRs, but it is reasonable to ask learners to view video independently outside of the classroom.

In part because of the popularity of Krashen's Monitor Model (1982, 1983, 1985), instructors often use video for passive "comprehensible input" to develop learners' listening comprehension skills. Further complicating this situation encountered in L2 pedagogy, which encourages passive viewing, is the observation that since childhood, we have become accustomed to watching television passively (Lonnergan, 1984), so it is natural for the learner to view pedagogical videos this way. Current research projects, such as mine, consider research on input enhancement in addition to Krashen's Monitor Model and attempt to change the learners' mode of interaction with the video component of the language course. In an attempt to change the learner's lifelong viewing habits, some researchers and instructors are asking learners to watch video actively, by noticing and recording formal properties of the language in addition to following the develop-

ment of the plot (Overfield, 1996; Pearson, forthcoming; Altman, 1989; Garza, 1996; Berwald, 1985; Gale and Brown, 1985; Gillespie, 1985; Lavery 1984; Mount, 1988).

One way for learners to acquire the pragmatic features of an L2 would be to immerse themselves in the target culture. Since immersion is not possible for many learners, video is the next best thing. In his research, Altman (1989) found that learners who viewed a Total Physical Response (TPR, Asher 1977, 1982) session performed as well as students who actually participated in the session. This finding implies that video can be a form of virtual reality for the language learner. An interesting study by Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) concluded that, in the absence of overt teaching, it can take a language learner approximately 10 years to acquire sociolinguistic competence even in a total immersion environment. This evidence supports the claim that input enhancement is crucial to the development of L2 pragmatic competence, especially in a non-immersion setting.

Most research in the area of sociolinguistic competence has been conducted within the English as a Second/ Foreign Language (ESL/ EFL) community. This type of research in Spanish as a Second Language is growing, but still not as plentiful (Koike, Pearson, and Witten, in print).

While illuminating, research in ESL/EFL is not always readily transferable to the situation faced by other L2 educators for two main reasons. First, EFL instructors are dealing with learners who are in total immersion situations. Furthermore, learners of English are often more motivated by both intrinsic and instrumental factors (Terrell, 1977), because many plan to either immigrate to an English-speaking country or to obtain employment in which English is essential. On the other hand, instructors of languages other than English are more often dealing with learners who are simply fulfilling a language requirement or who have other motivations to master an L2 that are not as strong as that of the typical ESL/EFL learner.

Whatever the individual L2 learner's motivation, however, sociolinguistic competence is important for all of them. Research shows that native speakers are more sensitive to sociolinguistic errors than to grammatical errors made by nonnative speakers (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985). Therefore, in order to facilitate positive reactions by native speakers when a learner is interacting in the L2 environment, it is important that all L2 learners (including those who may never plan to master the language, but who may want to be able to use it at least informally throughout their lives or careers) be exposed to the existence of pragmatic differences within and across languages.

With the aforementioned factors in mind, this current research project investigated beginning learners of Spanish at a large, public American University and focused on their awareness of Spanish sociolinguistic differences as well as their use of certain forms.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### The Research Questions

This study addressed three research questions. They are as follows:

1. What is the role of conscious awareness in the learning of L2 pragmatic features?

2. How can interactive video viewing enhance pragmatic input?

3. Does form-focused input enhancement affect learners' global comprehension?

### The Subjects

The subjects for this study were more than 200 students enrolled in an accelerated first-year Spanish course at a large, public American university. This course condensed the first two semesters of the regular program into one semester. To qualify for this course, students had to achieve a certain score on the department's placement exam. Because of the nature of the class, the students tended to be at a relatively equal ability level. Students were assigned to the various sections of this course at random by the university's computerized scheduling system. Likewise, the author chose sections for this study at random. Also, the assignment of sections to either the test or control group was done randomly.

The study began with more than 200 subjects; however, almost half of the subjects were eliminated for various reasons. Students who were heritage speakers of the language or who had more than 3 months travel abroad exposure to the language were eliminated from the study. Also, those who did not complete all three feedback instruments at the end of the semester were eliminated. In the end, there was a total of 106 subjects. The test group consisted of 62 subjects, while the control group consisted of 44.

### The Nine Control Group Treatments

The control group was given the department's suggested (though not mandatory) instructional methodology. They were asked to independently view episodes of *Destinos: An Introduction to Spanish* (VanPatten, et al., 1992) on nine occasions during the semester. *Destinos* is a pedagogical Spanish video program that, though scripted, exposes the learners to authentic language and culture in a soap opera format as the protagonist travels to various Spanish-speaking countries. Each of the nine sessions viewed at home by the learners contained roughly an hour of video. Following each viewing session, the students were required to take in-class quizzes prepared by their individual instructors, which focused solely on the plot of the video story. The quizzes were worth 5 points each and consisted of true/false, multiple-choice, or short answer questions. Thus, the nine *Destinos* quizzes were worth a total of 45 points. The semester grade was based on a 1,000-point system, so the video component was 4.5% of each student's semester grade.

**The Nine Test Group Treatments**

Though the test group saw the same episodes of the video and received the same amount of points for each assignment, it was given a much different approach. Before each of the nine viewings, the test group subjects were given a take-home quiz to fill out while watching the video. This closer involvement with the video is why their viewing style has been called "active" or "interactive" as opposed to the control group's viewing style, which was relatively passive in comparison. Since classroom instruction was held to a minimum for this experiment, the instructors who participated in both the control and test groups were unaware of the goal of the research project. They were simply told that we would provide the test group with *Destinos* quizzes and would also correct the quizzes.

Since pilot studies had confirmed that L2 learners do not readily understand the concepts of sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Witten, 1999), a brief two-page handout was provided to the students along with the first *Destinos* take-home quiz. A copy of the sociolinguistic portion of this handout can be found in Appendix A. An example of the first take-home quiz given to the learners in the test group can be found in Appendix B. The quizzes, which will also be called treatments throughout this study, asked students to find examples in the areas of grammatical, strategic, and sociolinguistic competence from the video. The treatments also asked them to find examples of new cultural knowledge and to provide a summary of the plot.

In studies done by VanPatten (1989, 1990), it was discovered that focusing the learners' attention on the formal properties of a language during listening exercises can have deleterious effects on overall, global comprehension. Since this is not a favorable situation, in this study, we also wanted to determine whether we were negatively affecting students' overall comprehension. Therefore, we asked the subjects to provide plot summaries in order to stress the importance of global comprehension. We also examined plot comprehension in the final feedback at the end of the semester in order to address our third research question.

For the purpose of this study, only the questions in the area of sociolinguistic competence on the take-home quizzes (treatments) are relevant. While it would be interesting to know if and how this approach increased the learners' strategic and grammatical competence and world knowledge, these areas do not fall within the scope of this study. These other lines of inquiry were included in the treatments for pedagogical reasons as well as to serve as distracters to keep learners and their instructors from knowing the purpose of this study.

Upon completion of the first treatment, the test group instructors provided the author with the subjects' responses to the treatments. These quizzes were corrected and were returned to the instructors along with a list of two or three "good" sample re-

sponses to each area of the take-home quizzes. Instructors were asked to allow these students to read their answers to the class, so that those who had been denied credit would understand why. This minimal intervention in the learning process was deemed necessary since the learners were being graded on these treatments.

As with the control group, the learners of the test group were given 5 points for each of the treatments. Since they were being asked to do much more work for their 5 points than those in the control group, affect was a concern. Affect of both test and control groups was examined at the end of the semester, because it has been demonstrated to influence the learning process (Gardner and Lambert, 1972, Horwitz, 1988; Young, 1992).

**Some Sample Responses to the Nine Test Group Treatments**

In order to provide the reader with an example of the type of information the author was soliciting with the treatments, the following are some sample responses from the first treatment (Appendix B) in the two areas of sociolinguistic competence. For example on Question 1, which asked students to provide examples of characters using either the formal or informal Spanish address, two typical responses were as follows:

"When Juan walked into the kitchen when Arturo and Pedro were talking, Raquel and Angela were talking on the phone. They were having a friendly conversation using the *tú* (informal) form."

"When Raquel was calling Pedro, she was talking to his housekeeper (the woman in pink). Raquel said '. . . *y usted?*' (formal form) when responding to the housekeeper. I think she said this, because the housekeeper was older. She said it to be respectful."

The first responder was asked to explain why he thought the two characters used the informal address form. It was hoped that he would infer that "friendliness" was not necessarily a factor in choice of address. The second responder was asked to read her example to the class, because it contained a specific rationale for the use of the formal address.

For Question 2, which asked students to look for examples of characters using various speech acts in order to determine if they were similar or different from what would be used by a native speaker of their language or dialect, below are two typical responses:

"When Pati was being told that her play was controversial and she should change it, she rebuked this. When she rebuked this fact, she became very fidgety—for example, she moved her hands a lot. I think that this is very much alike in English. I think we also move our hands for emphasis when we disagree."

"When they answer the phone, they say '*bueno*' (good) instead of 'hello.'"

The learner who provided the first response was asked to provide actual quotes the next time. Though body language is certainly important to communication, pragmatic compe-

tence is concerned with linguistic realizations of communication. The second responder was asked to read his response to the class, because it was a good example of pragmatic differences between English and Spanish.

In order to vary instructional strategy and also to look at different types of processing, the treatments given to learners took both deductive and inductive approaches to testing the learners' ability to respond to the different areas addressed in the *Destinos* quizzes. For example, in the fourth worksheet (Appendix C), instead of being asked to glean a quote from the episodes, students were asked to look for and analyze a specific quote in the episode they were viewing. The former approach is more inductive in nature, because it asks learners to pick a specific quote from a general corpus. The latter approach is more deductive in nature, because it asks the learner to take a specific quote and then to draw some general observations from that quote.

In response to the sociolinguistic section on the fourth quiz, here are some "good" answers, which students were asked to share with the class:

Question 1. "Jorge says to Raquel '*Me puedes tutear. ¿El tuteo es mas íntimo, no?*' (You can use the informal address form with me. It is more intimate, don't you think?) In English, we cannot say this, because we only use the word 'you.'"

Question 3. "Raquel says '*¿No crees que es mejor que él mismo compre el cine?*' (Don't you think it is better that HE buys the theater with his own money?) I think if I were to make a suggestion it would be similar to this, if I were talking in English."

In the fifth treatment (quiz) (Appendix D), in both the sociolinguistic and grammatical competence sections learners were asked to look for specific examples from the dialogue. In this way, learners were asked to use both inductive and deductive strategies throughout the semester.

**Data Collection Methodology**

At the end of the semester, three feedback instruments were given to learners in both the test and control groups to determine if and how their sociolinguistic awareness and use were affected by the different treatments (quizzes) that the two groups received throughout the semester. Following are an explanation of the feedback instruments and an analysis of the data that was obtained from them.

**Data Analysis**

The three feedback instruments given to both the test and control groups at the end of the semester were a two-part written feedback form that contained several lines of inquiry, an oral role-play instrument, and a multiple-choice instrument that was included as part of the semester final exam. These instruments can be found in Appendices E, F, and G, respectively. The results from these three instruments are shown on Table 1. They will now be discussed in detail.

TABLE 1
RESULTS FROM THE THREE FEEDBACK INSTRUMENTS

| | Test group* | Control group* | T>C ratio** | Chi square*** | t test*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Written feedback (Part B) | 55% | 45% | 12 out of 15 | Sig. or trend on 6 out of 15 items | 0.002 |
| Oral feedback | 56% | 48% | 7 out of 10 | N/A | 0.15 |
| Multiple choice feedback | 59.40% | 59.30% | 4 out of 8 | Sig. on 1 out of 8items | 0.97 |
| Pragmatic awareness | 51% | 48% | 9 out of 11 | N/A | 0.016 |
| Pragmatic use/production | 57% | 51% | 15 out of 24 | N/A | 0.046 |
| Affect | | | 10 out of 11 | Sig. or trend on 5 out of 11 items | N/A |
| Time on task-missed episodes | 14% | 24% | N/A | 0.144 | 0.03 |
| Time on task-minutes | 102.5 | 66.8 | N/A | 0.017 | N/A |
| Plot items recalled | 9.1 | 7.3 | N/A | 0.531 | 0.08 |

*Raw scores/total percent of items answered correctly

**Number of items on which the test group outperformed the control group. For example, on the written feedback, the test group scored higher than the control group on 12 out of a total of 15 items.

***Statistical significance p= or < .05; Statistical trend p>.05-.10

**The Written Feedback Effect**

First, the feedback provided in the various areas on Part A and Part B of the written feedback form (Appendix E) will be analyzed. In Part A, items 1 through 9, 12, and 13 dealt with areas of affect, such as the learners' attitudes toward the video component of the course, the way it was presented, and its usefulness. Of these 11 items, the test group's responses were more positive on 10 items. (This information can be found under the column labeled "T>C ratio" and in the row labeled "Affect" on the above table.) Furthermore, statistical significance was found in the responses to three of these items. Statistical significance was defined as a p value of equal or less than .05 on the chi square test.

There were also some interesting "internals" concerning the feedback in this data. For example, there was statistical significance when learners were asked if and why they dreaded watching the video (Item A5, Appendix E). This was the only affect question on which the test group showed more negativity than the control group. However, on closer analysis it was found that the test group gave both more positive and more negative responses on the Likert scale, while the control group was more neutral.

When asked if the video helped with the learners' pragmatic acquisition (Item A7), 46% of the test group responded with a 1 or a 2 on the Likert scale, while only 16% of the control group did so. (On the Likert scale developed for this study 1 indicated the highest level of agreement with a statement and 5 indicated the highest level of disagreement with a statement.) When asked about the video's usefulness to learn about culture (Item A4), the test group's responses were more positive; however, once again, the test group also gave more negative responses as well, while the control group was more neutral on the subject.

Statistical trends, which were defined as a probability of coincidence (p value) of greater than .05 but not over .10 on the chi square test, were found in response to two affect items. In response to Item A1 regarding the video's usefulness in learning grammar, 40% of the test group responded with a 1 or 2 on the Likert scale, while only 16% of the control group agreed with the statement. On Item A6 dealing with perceptions of fairness regarding the *Destinos* quizzes, the two groups gave nearly equal positive responses, while the control group gave more negative responses. In other words, a nearly equal number of respondents from each group responded with a 1 or 2 on the Likert scale, but more control group subjects responded with a 4 or 5, while more test group subjects responded with a neutral 3. The responses to this item were interesting because students in the test group were asked to work so much harder on each 5 point quiz than those in the control group. Apparently this hard work did not have a negative influence on the test group's attitude toward the treatments as was expected.

An interesting, though not statistically significant, response was that on Item A8 in which the learners were asked to rank the importance of different components of the course. While 60% of the control group saw the video as the least important component of the class, only 43% of the test group thought so. This difference in attitude may indicate that the treatments made the video component of the course more meaningful to the learners in the test group.

In response to Item A12, which asked students for suggestions on how to improve the course, 42% of the test group suggested that there should be more support in the classroom. This response was not surprising since, as the reader will recall, the test group instructors were purposefully left out of the process of giving and correcting quizzes to the greatest extent possible. The surprise is that a slightly higher percentage of the control group, 50%, also wished their instructors had spent more time on the video component of the course during class time. Though the author offered to correct the control group quizzes, they were designed by the individual instructors. The fact that so many students expressed a desire to spend more class time on the video component seems to indicate that both test and control group instructors gave the video component of the course less importance relative to the other components of the course. Therefore, the intervention into the learning process by the treatments developed for this study did not seem to have a discernible effect on the instructors' emphasis on the video component. It is important to note that this component of the course was treated as relatively unimportant by the instructors (remember, it was given a small weight in the overall grade, 4.5%), because it makes the results that will be presented later seem even more impressive.

As for the affect section as a whole, it is noteworthy that the test group had a much more positive attitude toward the video component of the class. Since affect influences motivation and learning, affect could be seen as an intervening variable in the experiment. Providing the students with input enhancement instruments and encouraging them to watch video actively apparently resulted in a more positive affect, which could have in turn influenced the learners' pragmatic awareness and use (which will be discussed later in this section).

**The Written Feedback-Time on Task**

Another possible intervening variable that could have an effect on students' awareness and acquisition of pragmatic features of the L2 could be time on task. We therefore included two items on the written feedback to determine if the test group spent more time on task than the control group. This was done with Items A10 and A11 of Appendix E. Statistical significance was found on both questions. (The two rows labeled time on task on Table 1 present these findings.) While the test group on average missed 14% of the viewings, the control group missed 24%. Also, the test group spent an average of 102.5 minutes on each

assignment while the control group only spent 66.8 minutes.

**The Written Feedback-Global Comprehension**

In order to address the third research question in this study, which was "Does form-focused input enhancement affect learners global comprehension?," we included two items on the written feedback instrument to determine if interactive video viewing with form-focused input enhancement assignments would influence the learners' comprehension of the plot of the video series (Items A15 and B15 of the written feedback instrument in Appendix E). As the row labeled "plot items recalled" of Table 1 shows, the treatments did not have a deleterious affect on the learners' global comprehension. In fact, the test group recalled more details on average than the control group did on Item B15. The chi square test, which compares the frequency of individual answers, showed no statistical significance between the two groups; however, the t test, which compares overall means, did find a statistical trend when comparing the performance of the two groups.

On Item A15 learners in the test group were also given the opportunity to provide a self-report style opinion regarding how they believed the take-home quizzes affected their ability to comprehend the plot of *Destinos*. The results of this inquiry were also positive. Of the learners in the test group, 44% believed that the treatments actually increased their global comprehension, 32% had a neutral opinion, and only 24% of the respondents believed that these treatments had a negative effect on their overall plot comprehension.

**The Written Feedback-Deductive and Inductive Learning**

In response to Items A16 and A17 on the written feedback form, learners in the test group provided some interesting feedback. Table 2 below outlines this feedback. These responses were surprising, because it was thought that the open-ended type questions like that on the first quiz (Appendix B) would pose less difficulty than specific questions like those on the fourth and fifth quizzes (Appendices C and D.). The learners, however, disagreed. They also seem to adhere to the "no pain, no gain" philosophy regarding their responses to Item A17.

**The Written Feedback-Pragmatic Awareness and Use**

Part B of the written feedback instrument dealt with learners' awareness and use of appropriate pragmatic features of the Spanish language. There were a total of 15 items. As the row labeled "Written feedback (Part B)" and column labeled "T>C ratio" on Table 1 indicates, the test group responded more appropriately than the control group on 12 of the 15 items, while the control group responded more appropriately on two of these items, and the two groups tied on one. The t test for statistical significance showed that the test group's overall superior performance

TABLE 2
INDUCTIVE VS. DEDUCTIVE TREATMENT ITEMS (Test group only)

| | Level of difficulty | Level of learning |
|---|---|---|
| Inductive | 38% | 43% |
| Deductive | 25% | 13% |
| Equal | 32% | 40% |

on the written feedback section was significant.

The author also performed chi square tests for significance on each of the 15 items. Statistical significance was found in 6 items. Of these, the test group outperformed the control group on five. These five items included Items B1, 3, 7, 9, and 12. The control group, however, did significantly better on Item B5. A statistical trend (meaning a chi square p value of over .05 but not over .10) was found on one of the 15 items. This was on Item B6 in which the test group had a more sociolinguistically appropriate style to introduce two friends to each other.

**The Oral Feedback**

As Table 1 indicates, the test group also used more pragmatically appropriate forms than the control group on the oral feedback instrument. As can be seen in Appendix F, there was a total of 10 items which were addressed during the oral role plays. The test group responded more appropriately on 7 items (1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9), while the control group gave more pragmatically appropriate responses on two items (6 and 10). They tied on Item 4. However, the t test p value of .15 is not low enough to claim any statistical significance or trend between the two groups' performance on the oral feedback instrument. These results indicate that, while the students in the test group had a better awareness of pragmatic differences between Spanish and English when they had time to think on the written feedback form, when they had to speak spontaneously, they did not produce significantly more appropriate utterances than the control group.

The Multiple-Choice Feedback

Three weeks after the written and oral feedback were obtained from the subjects, they took their semester final. On the final, we placed an optional section for the students to respond to. We were not very optimistic that many students would respond to this section, but were pleasantly surprised that almost all students did take the time to fill it out. Very few subjects had to be eliminated from the total original corpus due to noncompliance with this section of the feedback.

This third and final feedback instrument can be found in Appendix G. It consisted of eight multiple-choice questions. As Table 1 indicates, the

data from this instrument showed nearly equal performance by the two groups. Overall, the control group outperformed the test group on half of the items (Items 3, 4, 6, and 8). Chi squares on the responses to the individual items showed statistical significance on only one item- Item 2. On this item, 87% of the test group marked the correct answer while only 72% of the control group did so.

These disappointing results seem to indicate that, while the test group learners performed better on both written and oral production tasks, when the correct answer was available in a multiple choice format, all learners had roughly equal L2 pragmatic awareness. Since this instrument was given three weeks subsequent to the other two, it also could indicate that short-term advantages were soon lost.

**Pragmatic Awareness and Use**

Finally, separate analyses were done on all items of the three feedback instruments (written, oral, and multiple choice) involving actual written or oral use of appropriate sociolinguistic forms. All items of the three feedback instruments that dealt with awareness of pragmatic differences between the two languages were also analyzed.

We analyzed pragmatic awareness as well as actual use, because a general awareness that pragmatic differences exist is very important to future performance of language learners. As was previously mentioned, we are taught the pragmatics of our L1 at an early age by our caretakers. However, during this acculturation process we are not taught that certain utterances are appropriate in our specific language community, but we are taught that they are the only polite and correct utterances expected in a given social situation. This childhood acculturation process leads people to believe that sociolinguistic conventions are universal. Because of this belief, L2 learners have a tendency to transfer their L1 pragmatics to the L2 (Kasper, 1992; Koike, 1995). When the transfer is based on incorrect assumptions, interpersonal problems can arise. The L1 language learning phenomenon explains why we tend to be more offended by foreigners' pragmatic errors than by their grammar errors. In other words, we expect grammatical errors, but not pragmatic errors. Thus, showing L2 learners that there are pragmatic differences between languages, changes their a priori assumption that such differences do not exist. This realization that pragmatics are not universal can lead to more positive intercultural interactions.

Another reason that it is important to simply heighten the L2 learner's awareness that pragmatic differences will exist in the L2 rather than to only rely on teaching the use of specific features is that all pragmatic features of an L2 cannot be learned in the classroom. All the sociolinguistic differences between an L1 and an L2 cannot be overtly taught, because there are too many of them. Also, there are not only differences between languages, but there are also sociolinguistic differences between same language groups or subcultures

based on such factors as age, gender (Tannen, 1990), socioeconomics, region, and ethnicity.

As the rows labeled "Pragmatic awareness" and "Pragmatic use/production" on Table 1 indicate, the test group demonstrated a statistically significant greater overall awareness of pragmatic differences between the two languages when relevant items on all three feedback instruments are considered. On all items of the three feedback instruments concerning actual production and use of specific pragmatic features of Spanish, the test group also showed statistically significant superior performance.

## Conclusions

Though the mean scores given in Table 1 suggest that much more work needs to be done with these learners, it is encouraging that after only one semester and with the manipulation of only 4.5% of the course grade, the test group did seem to learn a great deal about pragmatic differences between the English and Spanish language.

We now return to the three original research questions posed at the beginning of this paper. In response to the first of the three research questions, it appears that the role of conscious learning seems to be important in the learning of L2 pragmatic features. The input enhancement activities appear to have led the learners of the test group to outperform those of the control group at statistically significant levels in several areas. We believe that researchers now need to combine these instructional strategies with others that have had some significant results (such as metapragmatic discussion and role play in the classroom) in order to obtain a higher level acquisition of L2 pragmatic features.

In response to the second research question, it appears that interactive video viewing had positive effects on the learners' affect and time on task as well as on fomenting a greater sociolinguistic competence. The intervening variables of a more positive affect and more time on task may have assisted in increasing the learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatic features. Also, though not relevant to this study, other components of L2 acquisition (e.g., grammar, strategic competence, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.) could have been positively affected by these intervening variables.

As for the third research question, the experimental treatments appear to have helped increase the learners' global comprehension. This is probably because learners were primarily looking for lexical-level details, which are a component of global comprehension.

## Areas For Future Research And Pedagogical Application

This research could be easily extended and applied to more areas of second language learning. With the data that has been collected for this experiment, we would now like to look at individual speech acts, such as requests, salutations, and introductions, to ascertain any effects of the

treatments that the test group was given on these specific linguistic behaviors.

It would be interesting to conduct a similar experiment, but to also analyze the effects of input enhancement treatments and interactive video viewing on the development of grammatical and strategic competence in addition to the development of sociolinguistic competence.

As previously mentioned in this study, other researchers (Overfield, 1996, Pearson, forthcoming) have conducted similar experiments dealing with using video to develop better sociolinguistic competence. While this experiment held classroom interaction and instruction as constant as possible, these other researchers did intervene in the classroom teaching process with metapragmatic discussions and role plays. They also obtained some positive responses to their treatments. It would be interesting to now combine their and our instructional strategies to determine if a more profound effect on the learning of sociolinguistic features of an L2 could be achieved.

Finally, once researchers determine which combination of strategies provides the best results, we need to develop instructional materials that best address raising L2 learners' sociolinguistic competence. We also can use this and other research to help raise L2 learners' communicative competence levels in all areas through the use of input enhancement techniques and interactive materials used in conjunction with pedagogical video programs.

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## APPENDIX A
## DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION OF SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

*Sociolinguistic competence* involves the appropriate use of language within various social contexts or situations. It can be seen as "verbal etiquette." Research has shown that parents rarely teach any grammar to their children, but that they are very active in teaching them how to make appropriate requests, apologies, expressions of gratitude, etc. From this we may infer that humans are more concerned with appropriateness than correctness in speech.

If you remember back to your childhood, you were probably never told to say "May I please have a piece of candy" instead of "Give me some candy," because that is the way that *people in your country* should make requests. On the contrary, you were probably taught to say it that way, because it was "good" and "polite." In other words, verbal "manners" are taught as though they are exactly the same among all humans. The problem is that this is not always the case. But, since people are taught this way, they expect all people to have the same concepts of what would be polite and what would be rude to say in a given situation. So, while people are tolerant of grammar errors in young children and foreigners, they are not as tolerant of sociolinguistic *faux pas*. Therefore, when you travel to a foreign country or deal with foreigners in the future, sociolinguistic competence is perhaps the most important indicator of how you will be perceived by the people to whom you speak.

While parents focus on sociolinguistic competence and allow children to learn grammar mostly on their own, in the foreign language classroom, instructors take the opposite approach. Grammar is taught extensively while matters of social etiquette are usually relegated to the end of the chapter where they are usually overlooked due to time concerns. In defense of instructors, these sections are also overlooked, because sociolinguistic competence would be extremely difficult to teach in a classroom setting. While young children are in natural social situations where their parents can be constantly reminding them of the appropriate thing to say in each situation, in a classroom, only the teacher is a native or near-native speaker and the setting is not "natural" at all. The only way the teacher could reasonably teach appropriate requests would be to say, in English, something like "When you're in a fancy restaurant, say . . x . ., When you're in a dive, say . . y . ., When you're with a friend, say . . z . ." The instructor could try to simulate these different situations in the classroom, but again, this would be very artificial and might still not be helpful to the students. This is where *Destinos* can be very helpful. In this program native Spanish speakers interact in many different situations with people of different ages, socioeconomic status, gender, and regional backgrounds. If you focus your attention on what is said in various situations, you will learn a great deal about sociolinguistics. The exercises in this packet will help you to do this.

**APPENDIX B**
**WORKSHEET NO. 1**
***Destinos*, Episodes #1 and 2 and #48 and 49 (Review of Episodes 3-18)**

*Please do the plot summary in Spanish. It will be graded for content only, not for grammar. The remaining sections may be done in either English or Spanish.

Plot summary:

1. Sociolinguistic competence: Give an example of a character using either formal (*usted*) or informal (*tú*) address with another character. Provide the context of the situation, and state why you believe the formal/informal was used in this situation.
   Situation and characters
   Actual quote
   Why do you think this form was used?

2. Sociolinguistic competence: Note how language was used in social situations in *Destinos*. Provide the context and state which speech act you were observing (request, apology, compliment, insult, argument, suggestion, complaint, refusal, rebuke, etc.). Here you may also note examples of "deixis" (coming, going, bringing, taking, here there, etc.). Mention how Spanish manners and expressions are alike or different from English or other languages which you know.
   Situation and characters
   Actual quote
   Type of speech act
   Is this alike or different from what should be said in the same situation in English or in another language that you know well?
   If different, what would be more appropriate in your language (culture) to say in this same situation?

Strategic competence: How did you use context clues (a few key words) to make sense of an ambiguous situation or dialogue? With these limited "pieces" of the entire puzzle, what do you <u>think</u> was being said or done?
Key words (quote)
Your interpretation of what was going on

Grammatical competence: Which of the grammar points from a recent class did you notice in the episodes? Provide speakers, situation, actual words, and note which grammar point the characters wre applying.
Situation and characters
Actual quote

New grammar point being used

Language as a tool to increase world knowledge: Name what you learned about history, geography, art, music, health, economics, politics, business, law, etc. from watching these episodes. (i.e., What Jeopardy question could you answer today that you would have missed yesterday?)
Jeopardy category
New knowledge

**APPENDIX C**
**WORKSHEET #4**
***Destinos*, Episodes #23 and 24**

*NOTE: There have been some changes. Read before viewing
**Please do the plot summary in Spanish. It will be graded for content only, not for grammar. The remaining sections may be done in either English or Spanish.

Plot summary:

Sociolinguistic competence: In episode 24, Raquel takes a strong dislike to a character she has recently met. What does this character say that makes her dislike him? (Focus on words, not actions.)
Quotes:

In this same situation, how does Raquel express her dislike of this individual without being blatantly rude? Comment on both verbal expression and body language.
Quotes:

In episode 24, Raquel makes a suggestion to Angela on a rather touchy subject. How exactly does she phrase her suggestion? Is this similar to or different from the way you would make such a suggestion in English?
Quote:

Alike or different from English?
Explain:

Grammatical competence: Which of the grammar points from a recent class did you notice in the episodes? Provide speakers, situation, actual words, and note which grammar point the characters wre applying.
Situation and characters-
Actual quote-
New grammar point being used-

Language as a tool to increase world knowledge: Name what you learned about history, geography, art, music, health, economics, politics, business, law, etc. from watching these episodes. (i.e., What Jeopardy question could you answer today that you would have missed yesterday?)
Jeopardy category
New knowledge

**APPENDIX D**
Worksheet #5
***Destinos*, Episodes #27 and 28**

*NOTE: There have been some changes. Read before viewing
**Please do the plot summary in Spanish. It will be graded for content only, not for grammar. The remaining sections may be done in either English or Spanish.

Plot summary:

Sociolinguistic competence: In episode 27, at one point Raquel and Angela think there is a mistake in the hospital registration list. EXACTLY what words does Raquel use to ask the receptionist whether it's possible that there's a mistake? Would an exact translation of her words be equally polite in English?
Quote:
Translation:
Cross-cultural analysis:

2 and 3: While there's not a lot of action in these two episodes, there are lots of examples of speech acts. Find one example of each of the following: request, leave-taking (saying good night or good bye), consoling/comforting. How were these similar to or different from the way they are done in English (or any other languages you speak)?
Request quote:
Compare to English:
Leave-taking quote:
Compare to English:
Consoling quote:
Compare to English:

4 and 5. Grammatical competence: Find three examples each of the use of preterite and imperfect verbal aspects. How can you explain the choice of aspect in each case?
PRETERITE quotes:
1.
why?
2.
why?
3.

why?
IMPERFECT quotes:
1.
why?
2.
why?
3.
why?

## APPENDIX E
## WRITTEN FEEDBACK

INSTRUCTOR_____NAME_____

(No one, but Caryn Witten will read individual responses. They will be held in strict confidence. If any are used in my research, a pseudonym will be used. I appreciate your candid observations.)

PART A
PLEASE RATE THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ON A SCALE OF 1 - 5.

1. *Destinos* helped me to improve my Spanish grammar.

| Agree | | | | Disagree | Don't know |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | * |

[To save space, Likert scale is omitted for the following items.]

2. *Destinos* improved my Spanish listening comprehension.

3. The *Destinos* part of the course seemed mostly like "busy work" to me. It didn't help improve my Spanish much.

4. *Destinos* was useful to learn about Hispanic culture.

5. I always dreaded the days I had to watch *Destinos*.

EXPLAIN WHY OR WHY NOT

_____

_____

6. Our *Destinos* quizzes seemed fair to me, because they accurately reflected what I learned from the program.

7. *Destinos* taught me a lot about what to say in different situations in Spanish-speaking countries. (For example, it taught me when to use the 'tú' or 'usted' form, how to answer the phone in Spanish, etc.)

8, PLEASE RANK THE FOLLOWING ACTIVITIES IN ORDER OF HOW USEFUL THEY WERE IN TEACHING YOU SPANISH. 1=1st, 2=2nd most useful, etc.

_____ Reading Portfolios
_____ Written Compositions
_____ *Destinos*
_____ Homework grammar assignments
_____ Oral interviews and presentations

9. *DESTINOS* IS THE MOST USEFUL FOR LEARNING. . . 1=1st, 2=2nd most useful, etc.

_____ Grammar
_____ Listening Comprehension
_____ To learn what Spanish speakers say in different situations
_____ Culture
_____ Pronunciation

Of the 9 *Destinos* viewings, how many did you miss?_____ (Remember these answers are confidential.)

11. How much time on average did you spend on *Destinos* each week? _____

12. If you were a Spanish instructor, how would you make *Destinos* more useful to the students?

_____
_____

13. What do you think about *Destinos* and the way it was used in this class?

(The remaining questions are for students who had take home *Destinos* quizzes only)

14. Which statement best describes your approach to doing the take-home quizzes (check all that apply)

_____ a. I would get the information needed to fill out the questions as soon as possible and then relax and watch the rest of the show for the sake of the plot only.
_____ b. I would watch the show focusing on the plot and then get the information for the quizzes near the end of the episodes.
_____ c. I would look for answers to the quizzes at a relaxed pace throughout the episodes.

_____ d. After I got the answers, I would keep sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, etc. in mind while watching the rest of the episodes.

_____ e. I watched the episodes long enough to get the answers to the questions.

_____ f. Other _____

15. How did doing the take-home quizzes affect your overall understanding of what was going on in *Destinos?*

_____ a. They helped me to understand the plot better, because I had to concentrate more.

_____ b. They were distracting and made it hard to focus on the plot.

_____ c. Other reaction _____

16. Which type of question did you find more difficult?
    a. Questions that asked me to find a quote in a GENERAL area (grammar, sociolinguistics, etc.) on my own.
    b. Questions that asked me to find a SPECIFIC quote (ex. What did Jorge say to Raquel when....)
    c. They were equally challenging.

17. Which type of question made you LEARN more?
    a. Questions that asked me to find a quote in a GNERAL area on my own
    b. Questions that asked me to find a SPECIFIC quote
    c. They were equally useful/practical to improve my Spanish.
    d. They were equally useless to improve my Spanish.

PART B

PLEASE RESPOND WITH SHORT ANSWERS IN ENGLISH OR SPANISH. YOU MAY USE THE WAY THE CHARACTERS IN *DESTINOS* TALKED TO EACH OTHER TO HELP YOU ANSWER.

1. When a person says, "Me puedes tutuear. El tuteo es más íntimo," what is being suggested?

_____

_____

2. Have you notice any differences between what English-speaking Americans and Spanish speakers say when beginning or ending a telephone conversation or is what they say a direct translation of what we say?

_____

_____

3. Give some examples of situations when the 'tú' form would be used and situations when the 'usted' form would be used.

'Tú'

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

'Usted'

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

4. Is the following suggestion polite in Spanish when one thinks an error has been made?

"¿No será un error?" YES NO DON'T KNOW

EXPLAIN _____

_____

Is an exact translation acceptable in English? YES NO

EXPLAIN _____

_____

5. In *Destinos* when Angela wanted to go to Mexico with Raquel, did she speak to her family in a way that would be different in American culture?

YES NO EXPLAIN

_____

_____

6. Give an example of a typical introduction of one person to another in Spanish. You can use names or 'person a,' 'person b,' etc.

_____:_____

_____

7. In English, while we're talking we use lots of expressions like "hmm. . .," "well. . .," "anyway. . .," as "connectors" or to give us time to think of our next point. Have you noticed any such expressions used in Spanish?

YES NO EXAMPLES:

_____

8. In the episodes of *Destinos* that you've seen, Angela and Raquel began to call each other 'tú.' If in the future they meet at a formal, black-tie party, what should they call each other?
   tú usted

   EXPLAIN _____
   _____

What have you noticed about the concept of politeness (manners) in "typical" Spanish-speaking countries as opposed to "typical" American English culture?

What similarities and differences have you noticed regarding how we console people in the above two languages/cultures?

What similarities or differences have you noticed regarding how we make requests in the above two languages/cultures?

Have you noticed people using the term 'please'/ 'por favor' more in English or in Spanish?

ENGLISH SPANISH DON'T KNOW

13. In *Destinos,* there were characters from many different countries. What differences did you notice in the way they spoke Spanish?

14. Have you noticed any terms that one group of Spanish-speakers uses to criticize another group of Spanish-speakers (i.e., 'ethnic slurs' between Spanish speakers)?
   YES NO

   EXAMPLES

15. Please take a minute or two and write quickly <u>in note form and in English</u> the details that you remember from the episodes of *Destinos* that you saw this semester.

## APPENDIX F
## ORAL FEEDBACK
### INSTRUCTIONS FOR ORAL ROLE PLAYS:

Decide who will be 'Person A' and who will be 'Person B' before going any further.

Briefly cover each of the four situations listed below using the Spanish words that "typical" Spanish-speakers would most likely use in these situations. You may use what you remember from the characters in *Destinos* as a guide.
RELAX and speak into the mike. This will not be graded and it is totally anonymous!

[NOTE: Numbers were added later. They indicate the items that the were being analyzed for the study.]

Situation 1--Person A calls person B on the phone

1. B: Answer phone.
2. A: Greet and identify yourself.
   B: Greet.
3. A: Ask if you can use Person B's Spanish book.
   B: Say yes.
4. A and B: End call.

Situation 2 Person B waits tables in a fancy, five-star restaurant. Person A is the customer.

5. B: Greet and ask for A's order.
6. A: Order wine.
   B: Respond.

Situation 3 Person A goes to a party with Person B. Person A runs into an old friend named Maria. Person A introduces Maria to Person B.

7. A: Greet Maria. Then introduce her to Person B.
8. B: Respond appropriately.

Situation 4 (For this one, Person A is a 'don Juan' and Person B is a female he has must met!) Person A, B, and A's naïve girlfriend are at the beach. While Person A's girlfriend is not looking, he flirts with her friend, Person B.

9. A: Flirt with B by asking two personal questions. Wait for an answer between each one.
10. B: Deflect these advances firmly, but quietly, so that your friend, A's girlfriend, will not hear.

## APPENDIX G
## MULTIPLE-CHOICE FEEDBACK

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION-DESTINOS
The following section will not affect your grade on the exam or in the course, but it will help researchers to find effective ways of using the Destinos programs and of teaching certain important sociolinguistic concepts. Please answer the following questions to the best of your ability.

PLEASE MARK THE MOST CULTURALLY APPROPRIATE RESPONSE TO THE FOLLOWING SITUATIONS. USE THE WAY THE CHARACTERS IN DESTINOS TREATED EACH OTHER TO HELP ANSWER.

1. You are in a Spanish-speaking country and someone knocks on your door. While you're on the way to answer, you should say:
   a. Con permiso
   b. Vengo
   c. Ya voy
   d. Estoy viniendo

2. An older person of the opposite sex stops you on the street to ask for directions to the nearby movie theater. You should reply:
   a. Doble usted a la derecha.
   b. Dobla tu a la derecha.
   c. No response, any communication would be improper.
   d. Voy contigo.

3. While you're in your hotel room in Mexico the phone rings. How should you answer it?
   a. Hola
   b. Buenos días
   c. ¿Quién habla?
   d. Bueno

4. You go to have dinner with a family who has a five-year-old child. How should you ask him his age?
   a. ¿Cuántos años tiene usted?
   b. ¿Cuántos años tienes tú?
   c. Inappropriate question in this culture
   d. Ask parents; not child

5. How should you order a glass of wine in a five star restaurant?
   a. Dame un vino tinto por favor
   b. Deme un vino tinto.
   c. Me gustaría un vino tinto
   d. ¿Puedo tener un vino tinto?

6. When is it appropriate to say 'buenas noches' in Spanish?
   a. Only when you are leaving
   b. Only when you first see people
   c. Both of the above
   d. Neither of the above

7. You walk into a friend's apartment for the first time and want to compliment her apartment.. You say:
   a. ¡Qué guapo!
   b. ¡Qué lindo!
   c. ¡Qué bueno!
   d. Mi apartamento es más grande

8. From Destinos, what have you noticed about the concept of politeness in different cultures?
   a. Direct translations of what is polite in English sound just as polite in Spanish.
   b. What is friendly in English may sound unfriendly in Spanish and vice versa.
   c. English speakers are more polite.
   d. Spanish speakers are more polite.
   e. Other_____

# *Political and Socio-Cultural Factors in Foreign Language Education: The Case of Lebanon*

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*This paper examines the importance of political and socio-cultural factors in foreign language education, focusing on EFL learning in Lebanon. A brief historical review of foreign language education in Lebanon and an overview of the current role and status of English in the Lebanese context will be provided, on the basis of which a discussion of the main political and socio-cultural factors that influence Lebanese EFL students' motivations and attitudes towards learning English will be presented.*

## INTRODUCTION

Students' motivations and attitudes towards the learning of foreign languages are often influenced by the broader socio-cultural context. In the case of foreign language education in Lebanon, political and socio-cultural factors have been fundamental in influencing, and perhaps even shaping, Lebanese students' motivations and attitudes towards learning the two main foreign languages, English and French. This paper will focus on the importance of such factors in the particular case of EFL learning in Lebanon. A historical review of foreign language education in Lebanon and a discussion of the current role and status of English in the Lebanese context will reveal several inter-related political and socio-cultural factors that play a crucial role in EFL learning in Lebanon.

## HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The role of foreign languages in Arab countries in general and in Lebanon in particular is a long and complex one. Several factors have contributed to the teaching and learning of foreign languages, mainly English and French, in the Arab World. Among these factors are the strategic geographical position of the Middle East and the ongoing Western interest in the economics and politics of the region, the British and French colonization of Arab countries in the middle of the 20th century, and the emergence of English as a leading international language for business, technology, and communication.

The above factors apply very well in the case of Lebanon. A historical review of foreign language education in Lebanon will reveal how the Western missionaries in the 18th and 19th centuries, the colonization by France right after the end of World War I until the Lebanese Independence in 1943, and the emergence of English as a leading international language all had a major influence on the learning and teaching of foreign languages, mainly English and French, in Lebanon.

**Prior to World War I**

During the period of the Ottoman rule (1516-1918), Lebanon managed to maintain a great degree of autonomy, mainly because of the nature of its religious makeup, a multisectarian one composed of six main communities: Maronite Christians, Greek Orthodox Christians, Catholic Christians, Shiite Muslims, Sunni Muslims, and Druze. According to Shaaban and Ghaith (1999), this multisectarian society prompted European countries to support communities in Lebanon that shared the same religious faith. Thus, France supported Maronite and Catholic communities, Russia supported the Orthodox, and Turkey sided with the Muslims.

Following the establishment of these ties between the various Lebanese religious communities and the West, competing missionaries arrived in Lebanon and established several schools that exposed the Lebanese to Western cultures and languages. According to Shaaban and Ghaith (1999), the most active of these missionaries were the French Jesuits and the American Protestants. The French Jesuits established strong relations with the Maronite Christians and founded several schools based on the French system of education, including, in 1875, the institution of higher learning now known as the University of Saint Joseph, which uses French as the language of instruction in most subjects and is still considered a strong cultural link between France and Lebanon.

American missionaries also founded several schools, including the well-known American University of Beirut (AUB), previously known as the Syrian Protestant College, which was founded in Beirut in 1866 by American Protestant missionaries in Lebanon and Syria at a time when Beirut was part of Syria under Ottoman rule. AUB, which uses English as the medium of instruction, later came to be viewed as the leading institution of higher learning in the Middle East, attracting students from several nations in the Middle East, Mediterranean region, and Europe. Needless to say, the existence of such a prestigious American institution in Beirut has had a big impact on the role and status of the English language in Lebanon. In a country largely influenced by the French language and culture, AUB was a major factor in promoting the American system of education and American English language in Lebanon.

According to Shaaban and Ghaith (1996), foreign languages spread mainly along sectarian lines during that period, with Catholics and Maronites learning French, most Muslims Arabic, and Muslim and Greek Orthodox elite English, a situation that obviously links religious background to language education and implies that Catholic and Maronite groups were not only learning French but were *not* learning English. Constantine (1995) contends that Lebanese Maronite Christians did not welcome the American missionaries, wanting to maintain their relations with France

and fearing the expansion of Protestant Churches. Thus, schools of French missionaries were mainly established in Maronite villages and regions, while American missionary schools thrived in Orthodox and Druze villages.

Indeed, most Lebanese Maronite and Catholic communities today still have strong affinities for France, a country that they think of as their "protector;" not surprisingly, in a predominantly Muslim Arab region, these Christian communities hold on to their strong ties with France. Christian Orthodox communities, on the other hand, preferred to establish ties with American Protestants. In fact, when the missionaries first arrived, a large proportion of the Lebanese Orthodox community was converted to Protestantism. Thus, religious background seems to play an important role in the Lebanese population's affiliations with the West and consequently with Western foreign languages, particularly English and French.

**The French Mandate (1920-1943)**

Even before the period of the French mandate, a large portion of the Lebanese population, mainly Maronites, were already influenced by the French language and culture. According to Mansfield (1976), in his book *The Arabs*, France had no need to impose its language and culture on the Christian Lebanese, since they had already "long accepted it [the French language] as an instrument of education" (p. 240).

However, not surprisingly, the French mandate strengthened this French influence in Lebanon. During the period of the French mandate, the French language became an official language in Lebanon in addition to Arabic; French was taught in all schools and was the medium of instruction for sciences, mathematics, and social studies at all levels of education (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1999). Even private American and British schools which use English as the medium of instruction had to teach French as well. In addition, the French introduced a system of public examinations modeled on their own educational system.

Needless to say, a proficiency in French was essential for academic and professional success in Lebanon during that period; French became the language of the educated and the elite. In addition, the majority of students at French schools were Christians, which, according to Shaaban and Ghaith (1999), resulted in educational inequalities in favor of Catholic and Maronite groups in Lebanon and created resentment among Muslims, who believed that the French were creating a Christian political and economic elite affiliated with France and the French language and having no allegiance to Arabic. Thus, this situation helped to foster feelings of Arab nationalism and rejection of Western cultures and languages among certain (mainly Muslim) groups in Lebanon.

**The Independence Era (1943-1975)**

After Lebanese independence in 1943, Arabic became the only official language in Lebanon, and in 1946, English became one of the two compulsory foreign languages in secondary schools, along with French. Indeed, the Lebanese government's official curriculum for public schools gave equal importance to French and English. All schools, national and foreign, were required to use the official Lebanese curricula; however, schools were allowed to choose their own instructional methods.

During this period, several decrees pertaining to language education were issued, most of which aimed at strengthening the role of Arabic in education and using it as a medium of instruction. However, these decrees were mostly a hasty expression of national pride and did not result from careful planning; the fact remained that French and English were "deeply rooted in the Lebanese educational system" (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1996, p. 101) and both remained dominant as media of instruction in many Lebanese schools. Economic reasons mainly contributed to this spread of foreign languages as media of instruction, especially English, which at that time was starting to become more influential than French in Lebanon, mainly because of the international influence of the United States and the growing importance of the English language in international business, science, and technology (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1996).

**The Civil War (1975-1989)**

When the civil war broke out in Lebanon in 1975, it resulted in a chaotic educational situation, with declining standards in most schools because of the lack of qualified faculty, loss of instructional time, and destruction of school facilities. Quality education deteriorated drastically at most public schools in the country and schools in the former South Lebanon "security zone" region that was occupied by Israel from 1978 until May 2000. At the same time, however, there was an increase in the number of private schools, mainly in the Greater Beirut area, and the use of English as a medium of instruction continued to rise. Most private schools established during the civil war were English-medium schools, regardless of their ideological or religious orientations (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1996), and new English-medium universities were established, even in traditional "French-oriented" regions, which further contributed to the elitist system of education where those who could not afford expensive private schools with strong English programs did not have much chance of professional or social advancement.

**The Present Situation**

In 1989, the Lebanese civil war officially came to an end, and new educational plans were issued. These plans emphasized the importance of Arabic as the native language and the only official language in Lebanon; however, there was also an acknowledgment of the importance of foreign languages, mainly English and

French, exemplified by the new Lebanese Curriculum issued in 1997 that gave equal weight to Arabic and either English or French, depending on whether the particular school is English or French-medium. The number of hours both the native language and either English or French is taught is equivalent at all the educational levels (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1999).

Currently, both private and public schools are also allowed to decide which language is appropriate for instruction. Indeed, in 1994, an official decree stated that foreign languages, mainly English or French, can be used as media of instruction in all cycles, even pre-school and elementary levels, indicating a shift from using Arabic as an instructional language (Shaaban and Ghaith, 1999). In addition, there are currently plans to modernize the educational system in Lebanon and train foreign language teachers in general and EFL teachers in particular on a large-scale basis, which further reveals that foreign languages, and especially English, are likely to remain an essential component of the Lebanese educational system.

## The Current Role And Status Of English In Lebanon

As revealed in the historical review, proficiency in English has become essential for academic and professional success in Lebanon, and by the middle of the 20th century, English was starting to become more influential than French. Constantine (1995) claims that the importance of the French culture and language in Lebanon has been gradually weakening, mainly because of the competition from American culture. Statistics for the academic year 1993-1994 show that there were 132 primary and middle public schools which had adopted English as the main foreign language alongside Arabic during that academic year, a large number compared with the early 1970's when only a few schools had English as the main foreign language (Constantine).

Moreover, according to Shaaban and Ghaith (1999), the traditional cultural-linguistic conflict between Arabic and foreign languages as media of instruction is now shifting towards "full-fledged multilingualism in society as well as in education" (p. 1) and is being gradually replaced by a struggle between English and French, with English gaining ground so far, mainly because of economic and practical considerations. Most prestigious private universities in Lebanon, such as the previously mentioned American University of Beirut (AUB), the Lebanese American University, and the University of Balamand, use English as the medium of instruction and require scores on English entrance examinations that determine whether students are admitted or not and how many English language courses they are required to take. In addition, many business corporations currently demand that their employees demonstrate a certain level of proficiency in English. The need for intensive English language teaching programs in Beirut, and the proliferation of English language teaching institutes throughout the country also

reveal the growing importance of English in Lebanon.

Furthermore, the favorable attitudes of young Lebanese towards the English language also reveal the important role of English in the country. In a study investigating the motivations and attitudes of Lebanese university EFL students towards learning English, Yazigy (1994) found that of the 164 students (71 males and 93 females) participating in her study, 98% disagreed that learning English is "a waste of time" and an average of 84% reported that they plan to learn English as much as possible and speak it outside the classroom if given the opportunity. Overwhelmingly, the students in this study revealed positive attitudes towards the English language and rated it as a "useful, valuable, and practical" language, a finding that Yazigy suggested might be attributable to the current international importance of English. Based on this study, Yazigy concluded that there is a need in Lebanon to know the English language as "the language of the world, commerce, higher education and to an extent for communicative purposes" (p. 72).

Another strong indication of the expanding role of English in Lebanon is the fact that 63% of French-medium schools currently teach English as a third language as opposed to only 26% of English-medium schools that teach French as a third language (Smaily, 1996, as cited in Shaaban & Ghaith, 1999). Thus, teaching English in Lebanon is obviously regarded as essential, with even traditionally French-centered schools realizing that they need to offer EFL classes if they want to attract students. In the few schools that use Arabic as the medium of instruction, parents are concerned about their children losing career opportunities because they haven't achieved a certain level of proficiency in English (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1999).

Finally, a committee set by the (Lebanese) National Center for Educational Research and Development has aimed at developing an EFL curriculum to be implemented nation-wide in Lebanon. Shaaban and Ghaith (1997), coordinators of the work of this committee, identify three main goals of teaching EFL in Lebanon, based on both the principles of a new educational policy in post-war Lebanon as well as contemporary thoughts in the fields of curriculum planning and foreign language education: "using English as a medium of instruction in content areas; using English for communication in social settings; and using correct and appropriate English academically, socially, and culturally" (p. 201). Thus, the English language obviously holds great power in the Lebanese context, in which anyone hoping to advance academically, socially, or professionally must attain a certain level of proficiency in English.

## Influential Political And Socio-Cultural Factors In The Lebanese Context

Based on the above historical review and the discussion of the role and status of English in Lebanon, several inter-related variables emerge as crucial factors influencing Lebanese

students' motivations and attitudes towards learning foreign languages in general and English in particular.

**Religious Background**

As seen in the historical review, religious background seems to play an important role in the Lebanese population's affiliations with the West and consequently with Western foreign languages, particularly English and French. According to Constantine (1995), the multi-sectarian nature of Lebanon stands out and must be taken into account; as discussed above, the six main religious communities can have very different attitudes and beliefs about several aspects of life in Lebanon, including foreign language learning and the relative importance of English and French.

**Political Affiliations**

Political affiliations, which are closely related to religious background in Lebanon, are also influential in shaping Lebanese students' motivations and attitudes towards learning foreign languages. Kraidy (1998) aptly points out that Lebanon apparently suffers from an "identity crisis:" Is Lebanon, as Lebanese nationalists argue, "a unique country with Phoenician ascendance, Western affinities, distinct from its Arab environment," (p. 3) or is it an inseparable part of the Arab world, sharing the history, culture, and national identity of its neighboring Arab countries? This conflict is important to consider when analyzing Lebanese students' motivations towards learning Western foreign languages. According to Shaaban (1990), using English or French as a medium of instruction can be considered "a form of conscious identification with the West" for some groups in Lebanon, who feel that knowledge of foreign languages and cultures, namely French and English, "sets them apart from the rest of the Arabs and brings them closer to the western heritage" (p. 25).

Shaaban (1990) also points out that some Lebanese groups are very much in favor of the "Arabization" of education in Lebanon, making Arabic the official and only medium of instruction, while other Lebanese groups vehemently oppose such a policy. He provides the example of the (then) Minister of Education in Lebanon, a Maronite Christian, stating in 1991 that "under no circumstances would we think of Arabizing education in Lebanon," (as cited in Shaaban, p. 25), a strong statement that the Lebanese Makassed Islamic Philanthropic Association reacted angrily to, since this association had initiated a project to Arabize the teaching of mathematics and sciences at the elementary and intermediate levels in its schools.

Thus, this conflict between Arab nationalism and western orientation reveals that religious background is associated with certain political affiliations and orientations in Lebanon, and the two factors work together to shape motivations and attitudes towards foreign language learning. Lebanese students' motivations for learning English as a second language as opposed to learning French, for example, are presumably

largely shaped by their family's religious and political affiliations. One might expect that most Maronite Christians, having a long history of attending French-medium schools and placing much importance on the importance and prestige of French, would want their children to continue in this tradition; however, the importance of English in commerce and business nowadays might prompt these same individuals to encourage their children to learn both languages. Lebanese who have no affiliations with France and the French language, on the other hand, are likely to encourage their children to learn English with little concern about their learning French.

**Socio-Economic Status**

Students from different socio-economic backgrounds might also have different attitudes and motivations towards learning English. Socio-economic status plays an important role in the choice of school students enroll in, and consequently in the kind of EFL education they receive. There are great differences in teachers' qualifications and instructional programs among the various schools in Lebanon; private schools in Beirut are known to be more rigorous and have higher standards of education and stronger foreign language programs than public schools and many schools outside Beirut (Shaaban & Ghaith, 1996).

It is probably safe to assume that most middle-class and upper-class families enroll their children in private schools that have strong English or French language programs and that probably have either language as a medium of instruction. Indeed, according to Shaaban and Ghaith (1999), the educational inequalities today are mostly a result of socio-economic rather than sectarian divisions; low middle and working classes cannot financially afford expensive private schools with strong English programs and therefore do not have much chance of professional and social advancement. However, it is important to keep in mind that religious affiliation and socio-economic background may interact in complex ways, since better-educated Christians and elite Sunni Muslims tend to dominate the upper and middle classes.

Therefore, students coming from English-medium private schools are obviously expected to be more proficient in the English language than students coming from French or Arabic-medium schools and even English-medium public schools. Having had the opportunity to practice English in most of their classes and to be taught by qualified EFL instructors in American-oriented schools, these students might also be expected to be more motivated and to have more positive attitudes towards learning English than those who have not had such opportunities.

**Influence of Arabic as the Native Language**

A factor that might also influence some Lebanese students' motivations and attitudes towards language learning is the perception of Arabic, particularly among Muslims, as a sa-

cred God-given language, appreciated for its beauty and vast literary tradition in addition to its religious value (Yazigy, 1994). Thus, some Lebanese groups might regard English or French as inherently inferior to Arabic, an attitude that can have a possibly harmful effect on their learning of these foreign languages.

**Gender**

A final important factor to consider in the particular Lebanese EFL socio-cultural context is gender. According to Ehrlich (1997), the socio-cultural contexts in which second or foreign languages are acquired and the way in which gender is locally constructed in these specific speech communities should be taken into account when examining differences in second or foreign language learning. Thus, it is important to consider the way gender is socially constructed in the particular Lebanese socio-cultural context and to examine the possible differences in motivation and attitudes towards learning English between males and females in Lebanon.

First, since more females in Lebanon are currently enrolled in higher education and entering the job market than ever before, a large number of both male and female EFL learners in Lebanon are expected to be instrumentally motivated to learn English. At the same time, however, females might also be interested in learning English for non- career or professional related reasons. While male Lebanese students tend to be more interested in learning English for purely professional and career aspirations, for many females in Lebanon, speaking English well is also considered a status symbol, indicating a higher social class and a higher level of education.

In addition, the gender of the teacher may have an influence on the achievement, attitudes, and motivations of the students towards the language (Cross, 1983). In Lebanon, EFL teachers are predominantly female. Thus, even though several other factors are involved in the EFL learning and teaching situation, it might be expected that female EFL learners in Lebanon will be higher achievers, more motivated, and have more positive attitudes towards EFL learning than males. Moreover, the large number of EFL female teachers helps in fostering the popular idea that EFL teaching is a female domain; therefore, having almost no male EFL teachers as role models, very few males might be motivated to major in English or become EFL teachers themselves.

A final possible gender difference in the Lebanese context might involve the fact that many women in Lebanon admire certain Western cultural values that offer greater social freedom and choices for women than most countries in the Arab world, including Lebanon. Abu-Rabia and Feuerverger (1996) found that male Arab students in Canada showed only an instrumental motivation in learning English, while females indicated a strong integrative motivation. Based on interviews conducted with the participants, the authors concluded that

male Arab students viewed the Canadian context as one that

clashes with their own cultural values, while female Arab students revealed a positive attitude toward Canadian society's approach to women's goals and ambitions. Abu-Rabia and Feuerverger (1996) attributed the Arab female students' strong integrative motivation to the admiration they seem to hold of the greater personal and professional freedom that women in Canada and in the West generally have. The same phenomenon certainly holds for many women in Lebanon, implying that more female EFL learners in Lebanon might be integratively motivated in learning English than males. Nevertheless, we have to keep in mind that gender will obviously interact in very complex ways with other background variables and a combination of factors, not any single variable, will influence and shape Lebanese students' motivations and attitudes towards learning English.

## CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to examine the importance of political and socio-cultural factors in foreign language education, focusing on EFL learning in Lebanon. A brief historical review of foreign language education in Lebanon and an overview of the current role and status of English in the Lebanese context reveal several inter-related political and socio-cultural factors influencing EFL learning in Lebanon. Factors such as religious background, political affiliations, and socio-economic status play a crucial role in shaping Lebanese students' motivations and attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language. Lebanon is composed of several heterogeneous groups that can have very different and even conflicting opinions about foreign language learning and teaching, an important fact to consider when examining the foreign language situation in Lebanon in general or the Lebanese EFL learning and teaching situation in particular.

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# *A Qualitative Approach to the Authenticity in the Foreign Language Classroom: A Study of University Students Learning English in Korea*

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*This qualitative study intends to provide a deeper understanding of foreign language learners' attitudes toward authentic input and to examine their changes in attitude and proficiency after instruction using authentic input in the foreign language classroom. Twenty-six Korean university students from two groups were randomly selected and interviewed. The experimental group was instructed with both graded and ungraded input, whereas the control group was instructed with only graded input. Each subject was interviewed at the end of the study. The results showed that both groups reported considerably low levels of confidence in their understanding of authentic input. However, the majority of students in the experimental group reported that their attitudes toward authentic input were changed positively, and their English proficiency improved over the treatment period. This study concludes with suggestions for using authentic input to improve EFL education.*

## INTRODUCTION

The term "input" refers to language that is written or spoken to the foreign/second language learner, either by a native speaker or another foreign/second language learner (Ellis, 1985). One of the most debatable aspects of second or foreign language (L2) acquisition theory is whether input should be intentionally simplified for L2 learners (Oxford, 1993). In fact, such learners are often exposed to some modified or scripted form rather than authentic input in their foreign/second language learning (Bacon, 1992b; Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Derwing, 1989).

Several studies have explored how teachers and others alter input intended for learners. In a study by Chaudron and Richards (1986), speakers intentionally slowed their rate of speech when they perceived their audience as nonnative speakers. While analyzing conversation between native and nonnative speakers, Derwing (1989) also discovered that native speakers increased the amount of background detail they provided to nonnative speakers when there were communication difficulties between them.

However, the effects of these kinds of modifications on comprehension and learning are less clear. Kelch (1985) found that a reduced speech rate was positively correlated with comprehension. Jacobs, et al. (1988) showed a significant effect of pausing on listening comprehension, but failed to see a significant relationship between the rate of speech and listening comprehension. According to Jacobs et al., a lengthy pause or slowed speed may trigger listeners' boredom or loss of focus so that their comprehension is impeded. Chaudron and Richards

(1986) also suggested that "[a]lthough learners may benefit by being able to segment words in slowed input, their short-term memory lacks the capacity to hold thoughts long enough for further processing. In addition, slowed speech, or artificially inserted pauses or other discourse markers may cause the hearer to lose linguistic information, such as intonation, which is important for comprehension" (1986, p. 399).

The idea of using authentic input in L2 instruction has been gaining support from a number of researchers (Allen, Bernhardt, Berry, & Demel, 1988; Bacon, 1992b; Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Bragger, 1985; Ciccone, 1995; Herron & Seay, 1991; Lee, 1995; Secules, Herron, & Tomasello, 1992). These studies posit that authentic input offers L2 learners both linguistic and cultural information that may not be available in pedagogical texts used in the traditional classroom. Bragger (1985) argued that "[e]verything we do with the language must be authentic" (1985:85). Bacon (1992b) observed a high value of authentic input in foreign/second language classrooms. According to her, authentic input enriches the cultural ingredient of the curriculum, mirrors real language use, and challenges teachers to help students develop appropriate learning strategies. Young (1980) noted that authentic input is motivating, interesting, and useful, with content that does not cause foreign language learners' culture shock or discomfort. Glisan (1988) argued that foreign language learners should not practice their listening comprehension through the exclusive use of question-answer formats to follow listening passages or conversations. She contended that foreign/second language teachers should give their students practice with natural listening tasks to improve their listening proficiency. Garza (1990) maintained that authentic input provides foreign language learners with cultural richness, which is a key element in understanding the foreign language.

Although using authentic input in foreign language instruction is becoming more common, some considerations are needed. Bacon (1992b) perceived a fine line between input that enhances and that which frustrates the learner. Several researchers, in fact, have proposed that learning with authentic input too early in foreign language acquisition could be not only a frustrating and anxiety-ridden experience for students but also an impractical approach for teachers. For example, Ur (1984) and Vande Berg (1993) suggested that activities with unedited input will increase learners' frustration; thus, those activities should be reserved for the highest levels in the curriculum.

Benefits and drawbacks of using authentic input in the foreign/second language classroom can be considered in Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1981), which proposes that language is acquired through comprehensible input. "Comprehensible input" can be defined as language that is simplified or appropriate to the language learner's capability. Implicit ac-

quisition of grammatical rules occurs when input to the learner is just a little beyond the learner's present linguistic capability (i+1). There is some doubt whether authentic input can be comprehensible input for L2 learners, especially for those at early stages of learning.

Omaggio (1993) argued that although authentic input may provide foreign language learners with culturally appropriate input, this language may not expose students to comprehensible input at the earliest stages of acquisition. Finally, Oxford (1993) observed both advantages and disadvantages of using simplified, edited nonauthentic input in the foreign language classroom. Based on the above observations, the present study is an attempt to have a closer look at foreign language learners' attitudes toward authentic input and to examine their changes in attitude and proficiency after instruction using authentic input in the foreign language classroom.

## METHOD

### Subjects

The subjects for this qualitative study were 26 students, randomly selected from two universities in Korea, with an intermediate level of English proficiency. The subjects included 12 male and 14 female students who had enrolled in English classes as part of their program requirements. 17 students were chosen to form a control group, and the other nine students were assigned to the experimental group. The control group was instructed using only nonauthentic input that was scripted and graded for the English lessons. For the experimental group, however, authentic input replaced the nonauthentic input in some portions of the lessons.

### Instrumentation

Three instruments were used in this study: 1) Interview Guide, 2) The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), and 3) The Test of English with Authentic Input (TEAI). First, the Interview Guide was developed by the author in order to obtain more in-depth information on the subjects' English learning and existing attitudes toward authentic input. It included 24 items divided into four sections: four warm-up questions, eight questions concerning general English study, ten questions pertaining to authentic input, and two closing questions.

The TOEIC, a graded and scripted test, was developed to measure the English proficiency of individuals whose native language is not English. The test consists of two sections with a total of 200 questions. The first section aims to test students' listening comprehension, and the other section pertains to reading comprehension. Each section has 100 multiple-choice items. For this study, only the listening section was adopted.

Finally, the author developed the TEAI, an English test using authentic input. The test is composed of 20 open-ended questions pertaining to a passage from the Associated Press (AP) news service. All questions in the test were written in the students' L1. Subjects were also allowed to answer in the L1. The author selected the

newscasts to measure students' English proficiency in comprehending authentic input because they are directed to native English speakers. Thus, they contain normal spoken speed and accents. The speed and structure in the AP newscasts were not altered for nonnative speakers of English.

**Data Collection Procedures**

During the present research, the author was employed as a part-time lecturer for English classes at two universities in Korea. In order to generalize more effectively, the author followed a random sampling procedure by choosing every tenth student on the roster of every class. 28 students from a total of 284 were selected by this procedure. However, two of those chosen declined to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted at the end of the semester. Prior to an interview, each student read and signed a consent form regarding the study. The interview questions were open-ended, and the entire session lasted about 30 minutes for each subject. In order to control for the differences in the interviewees' levels of speaking proficiency in English, each interview was tape-recorded in Korean. All students were asked the same questions in the interview guide. However, several questions about authentic input were excluded for subjects who had not been exposed to authentic input during the study.

All subjects took the TOEIC and TEAI twice, in the beginning and at the end of the semester. For the TOEIC, the subjects were given 45 minutes to answer the 100 listening questions. For the TEAI, the subjects read the questions before they listened to each news passage. Subjects were told prior to each question that the following section would be about a certain question and stopped the tape-recorder for each question. The subjects heard the passage for each question twice, and were allowed about 15 seconds to answer each question. The test took about 20 minutes.

**Data Analysis**

The author analyzed the interview data according to the following procedure: 1) transcribing the interviews, 2) coding the transcripts, and 3) constructing the results. First, the author transcribed the interview tapes. Next, the author began the coding process, which assisted in transforming the raw interview data into aggregated, meaningful units (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). The transcripts were initially coded based on the questions from the interview guide. Scrutinizing each transcript, however, the author was able to identify common themes and patterns. Each interviewee was assigned a unique number from 1 to 26, and this number, along with the applicable code, was listed in a coding matrix. This procedure enabled the author to note which codes were evident within each interview, and when several interviewees discussed similar issues or concerns within any given theme. From this procedure, a code matrix, that is a list of common codes and themes, was constructed.

In the process of constructing the results, the author attempted to establish trustworthiness by engaging in the following two techniques: 1) triangulation and 2) negative case analysis. Triangulation of multiple sources is a crucial technique employed by a researcher to establish trustworthiness and enhance the credibility of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to triangulate the data, the author examined multiple interview transcripts for common codes, themes, and patterns. This information was compiled by code. The code matrix served at a quick glance as a means to identify the recurrent patterns among the interviews by showing whether a code was evident in one, some, or all of the interviews. Therefore, the code matrix assisted the author in examining the results because it delineated triangulated themes as well as codes supported by only one individual.

The author also used negative case analysis in order to provide trustworthiness in interpreting results of this study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The author carefully and critically examined the transcripts for examples that were contradictory; these incidents are discussed in the results (below). Thus, this study attempted to report both the majority and the minority points of view, noting areas of conflict as well as consensus.

## RESULTS

The interview data was analyzed and grouped into three themes, according to common characteristics: 1) general English learning, 2) attitudes toward authentic input, and 3) suggestions regarding instruction. Each theme contains its own subthemes as listed in Table 1. Each subtheme will be discussed using quotes when appropriate in the following sections. Many of the characteristics were triangulated by a number of the participants, and in several cases by all interviewees.

### Theme 1: General English Learning

This section provides general information about the subjects' English learning. Most subjects reported that they began their English studies either in the first grade of middle school or a year before entering middle school. The purpose for studying English was diverse across subjects; however, career preparation was a dominant motivation. Most subjects reported the critical role of English proficiency in their careers. One student pointed out, "English is an essential part of the examination for every job opening. I think 90% of any job examination includes English" (#1: 49; here and in all other notations, the first number refers to the interviewee and the second number refers to the line(s) from the transcript of the interview).

By contrast, several students whose future careers did not mandate English proficiency displayed a lack of motivation to study English (#20 and #22). For example, English was an optional subject for students majoring in Law. According to these students, they were allowed to choose any foreign language for their required test. They mentioned that English was an attractive

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIONS OF SUB-THEMES OF MAJOR THEMES

| Major Themes | Abbreviation Of Sub-Themes | Description Of Sub-Themes |
|---|---|---|
| General English Learning | GEL 1 | The purposes for studying English and the importance of English in one's career |
| | GEL 2 | Areas of confidence and lack of confidence in learning English |
| | GEL 3 | Difficulties in listening comprehension |
| | GEL 4 | The important areas in learning English |
| | GEL 5 | Methods of learning English prior to the semester |
| | GEL 6 | Levels of satisfaction with previous English education |
| Attitudes toward Authentic Input | AAI 1 | Experiences with listening to authentic input prior to the semester |
| | AAI 2 | Listening to authentic input in the present |
| | AAI 3 | Comprehension level of authentic input |
| | AAI 4 | Comparisons of authentic input and general instructional input in terms of the levels of difficulties |
| | AAI 5 | Feelings about listening to the AP newscast in the pretest |
| | AAI 6 | Feelings about listening to the AP newscast in the present |
| | AAI 7 | Comparison of authentic input and general instructional input in terms of their benefits in learning English |
| | AAI 8 | Future plan about listening to authentic input |
| Suggestions | S | Suggestions for better English education |

language to most applicants for a legal position; however, the level of the English test was extremely high compared to that of other foreign language tests such as those for French, Spanish, or German. Therefore, those foreign languages were preferred for later testing instead of English (#20: 17-23; #22: 25-30).

The results also showed that reading comprehension was the area of greatest confidence, whereas listening and speaking were the most vulnerable areas in English learning (#1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 11, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, and 26). Difficulties in listening comprehension included the rapidity of English utterances (#11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 25); the flap phenomenon in English utterances (#15 and 16); and the unfamiliarity of words in English utterances (#12 and 15). Several students also mentioned that they felt listening comprehension to be very difficult because what they had learned or knew about English pronunciation was so different from English spoken in real situations (#2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, and 13).

For instance, students in the experimental group reported the following: "I realized that the pronunciation in the AP newscasts is different from what I know" (#6: 119). "I doubt if English cassette tapes sold in stores contain real English native speakers' voices. . . . When I listened to those kinds of tapes and met native speakers of English, I found that there are huge differences between English from the two sources....General listening input in cassette tapes seems to be easy to understand, but the AP newscasts or CNN is too difficult for me. It seems to be too fast. I rarely catch words" (#4: 95-106).

The majority of students interviewed believed that listening and speaking are more important than reading and writing in foreign language learning (#1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 17, 18, 21, 23, 24, and 26). During their middle and high school days, reading comprehension and grammar analysis tended to be the main foci in English lessons, whereas developing communication skills was overlooked (# 1, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, and 25). According to the subjects, English teachers spent a great deal of time analyzing the contents of texts and explaining grammar in their classes. That direction of English instruction reflects an emphasis on reading comprehension and grammar analysis in the English test for college admissions in Korea (#3: 91-92; #5: 47; #6: 84-85; #7: 97; 16: 95-86; # 17: 78-79; #24: 55-59). However, most students (except # 12 and 24) showed dissatisfaction or regret with their English learning during their middle or high school days. For example, one student indicated, "In retrospect, I am not satisfied with the way I learned English in middle and high school days. However, we had no choice at that time. We just had to follow the teacher's direction. We were very passive" (# 21: 90-91).

**Theme 2: Attitudes Toward Authentic Input**

The Associated Press (AP) newscasts provided by the American Forces Korean Network (AFKN) are accessible to most Koreans, depending where they are living. The interview data indicated that more than half of the subjects (16 out of 26 students) had previous exposure to authentic input prior to the semester; however, the total amount of the exposure was extremely small. Several students reported that listening occasions lasted just a few seconds while they changed channels (#2: 115; #4: 123; #6: 115-121, #12: 151-153; #26: 119). Additionally, some students watched or listened to authentic input for fun without understanding it (#1, 3, 13, 19, 21, 24, and 25). Among this group, two students obviously showed that they did not attempt to understand what they heard. "I just watched it without paying attention" (#3: 113) "When I was bored, I just watched it without paying any attention" (#13: 162).

The interview data revealed that most students were not confident in comprehending authentic input; moreover, the level of authentic input comprehension was influenced by their background knowledge. A number of students reported that if they were provided visuals, they could connect what they knew to incoming messages (#3, 8, 13, 14, 19, 21, 25, and 26). For this reason, listening to the radio was a more difficult task for them than watching TV. Several comments included: "If I know something about the content of the newscast, I might understand around 30% of the newscast, whereas if I don't know the issue, I might understand only 10% of the newscast" (#3: 125-127) "Frankly speaking, I understand English broadcasts more on screen than from the sound alone" (#8: 103). "Radio seems to be more difficult than TV. With TV visuals, it is easier to understand" (#14: 165).

Authentic input also seemed to be too difficult for a majority of the students (23 out of 26 students) to understand, compared to graded input. The biggest difficulty in understanding authentic input was the fast speaking rate (#4, 7, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, and 25), followed by unclear articulation (#2, 7, and 15), lack of word knowledge (#4), and lack of proper background knowledge on the listening text (#5). Examples of comments are: "I think the AP newscasts are much harder than the TOEIC.... Words in the AP newscasts are Greek to me, and the speed of the AP newscasts is too fast for me" (#4: 131). "The tone of voice in the AP newscasts change so rapidly" (#2: 127).

Several students reported that general English learning materials like the TOEIC are graded and edited for nonnative speakers of English (#1, 7, 19, and 22). Thus, these materials are easy for them to understand. According to these students, the TOEIC has a certain format. Therefore, test takers can become accustomed to the test with practice. The AP newscasts, however, always provide something different, challenging one's listening skills. Several students' comments suggested these aspects: "Tests such as the TOEIC has (sic) a certain format, so our scores on the TOEIC will be conspicuously increased if we

study it for several months, according to my senior friend" (#1: 178-179). "There was one thing that I definitely realized while I took the TOEIC. Native speakers of English seemed to speak in abnormal speed during the test in order to let students listen well. However, when I listened to the AP newscasts, I felt that I was listening to real English" (#22: 150-152).

The majority of the students reported that they were frustrated or embarrassed when they took the pretest of the TEAI (except #15, 17, and 26). This attitude was expressed as follows: "I am at a loss" (#2: 134). "Frankly speaking, I was shocked when I took the test the first time. I think everybody felt the same. It's too fast....I was really embarrassed" (#3: 133-136). "I thought, 'How can I understand this kind of thing....' It's kind of frustrating" (#6: 143). "I felt that I was the worst" (#18: 134).

The question of one's feelings about listening to the AP newscast at the end of semester was appropriate only for the students in the experimental group. Seven out of nine students in this group reported some kind of positive aspects from the treatment. First, in psychological terms, their frustration or embarrassment with authentic input seemed to diminish during the treatment. Two students reported that their sense of awkwardness when hearing authentic input seemed less than earlier in the semester (#2: 141; #9: 151). Other students revealed changes in their attitudes as well. "I was less frustrated and embarrassed when I took the second test than the first test" (#3: 146-147). "I cannot say that I am perfectly accustomed to that kind of news, but I am a little more accustomed to those input" (#7: 169-171).

Second, their comprehension seemed to improve over the semester. Several students mentioned this. "My knowledge of English words became better....I can understand some part of the news now" (#5: 161-163). "I think my listening comprehension for authentic input has improved" (#6: 147). "I just got about two words at first, but I got five or six words later" (#7: 161). Finally, they seemed to note the value of authentic input in their English learning. Several students commented on this: "I felt the necessity of studying authentic input much during the semester. . . . I feel I need to study authentic input" (#2: 143-148). "These days, I try to concentrate more on listening to authentic input" (#6: 151). One student reported that the TOEIC seemed to have become much slower listening input to him over the treatment period. Because he was accustomed to listening to rapid speech, as on the AP newscasts, he became more comfortable when he took the TOEIC test later (#8: 140-149).

On the other hand, one student reported that there was no change in his attitude toward authentic input between the pre- and post-test (#1: 196). In addition, several students suggested that although they learned many words, they still had difficulty understanding authentic input (#1: 200; #5: 161; #7: 163-164).

Sixteen out of 26 students from the two universities thought that studying authentic input would be

more conducive to the improvement of their English learning. The reason for this belief was that they involved diverse topics that rouse the subjects' interest and motivation to listen. They pointed out the merits of using authentic input in English learning in comments such as these: "Authentic input such as the AP newscasts will be more beneficial for us .... It's real happenings....The TOEIC is too monotonous. Though the TOEIC is easy to understand, it will be not be as useful as the AP newscasts in the future" (#2: 150-157). "In my opinion, though authentic input is difficult to comprehend, they are interesting and motivating because they talk about current issues" (#3: 150-151). One student offered a metaphor to compare authentic input and a graded textbook as follows: "I want to describe the graded textbook as a dictionary that has only A, B, and C. But authentic material is a dictionary that contains A to Z" (#23: 231-232).

Several students, however, had negative attitudes toward the use of authentic input in the classroom. "The speed of the AP newscasts is too fast for beginners, I think. . . . Nobody can understand them" (#1: 204-210). "For motivation, I think the TOEIC is better because it is more familiar to me" (#11: 165). "The AP newscasts were too difficult, to tell the truth" (#17: 168).

Some students proposed a combination of both authentic and structured materials. "In my opinion, if you combine those two, students would like it" (#3: 154). "Both materials are good" (# 4: 162). Two students revealed that they think the TOEIC is better as an instructional tool, while the newscasts are better for generating students' motivation (#7: 176, 190, 203-206; #8: 153-154). Conversely, one student thought that studying the TOEIC was more interesting, but that the AP newscasts would be more effective for improving the individual's English proficiency (#9: 158-159). A student also confessed that she could not prefer one over the other because she thought that the TOEIC would be better for beginners and the AP newscasts would be better for advanced learners (#15: 158-159).

Instruction with a good balance of the two types of input was regarded as a desirable approach to facilitate students' English learning; that is, excessive use of authentic input would be detrimental to students' English learning. One student suggested the following: "In my opinion, if a teacher uses the authentic input sometimes, it will prompt students' motivation. But if the teacher always uses the input, it would yield adverse effects for the students" (# 17: 172-173).

**Theme 3: Suggestions**

Finally, subjects in this study were allowed to comment on any themes they previously had discussed in their interviews. The data offer several suggestions for English foreign language education in Korea. First, the subjects maintained that there was a dire need for fundamental reform in English education (#2, 3, 7, 8, 14, 16, 18, and 24). According to them, their English education during middle and

high school days mainly emphasized reading comprehension and grammar analysis. These subjects regretted that they had received insufficient instruction in listening and speaking during that period.

One student's comments are especially notable because he described how listening comprehension activities were converted to reading comprehension activities. According to him, although English classes for listening comprehension were allotted to students in high school, the classes were supplemented with reading comprehension activities. The English teachers in high school spent their time more in analyzing sentences or grammar of listening materials instead of letting the students hear them. The English teachers assumed that the written form would not only be easy for them to deal with, but also easy for their students to study. The student, however, strongly disagreed that this kind of transfer would occur (#24:198-203).

Second, many subjects suggested that English teachers should try to make English class interesting and lead the class in the practical use of English (#4, 5, 6, 12, and 13). According to them, English lessons should stimulate their interest. If not, they will become exhausted easily (#4, 5, and 13). Teachers should introduce intriguing materials into class (#15) and provide students with the opportunities to "use the English of daily life as much as they can" (#16).

Finally, they proposed that students should listen to authentic input in order to improve their English listening proficiency. One student stated that English teachers in Korea seemed to be somewhat careless about their English pronunciation or accent because they seldom speak English in their classes (#10: 239-241). Therefore, for students, there was a lack of experience with listening to English. This subject further maintained that her English teachers' pronunciation was much different from that of native speakers of English. Other students commented as follows: "I think that textbooks for listening comprehension in college are too easy for us. I want to ask the teachers to raise the difficulty level of the textbooks in order to comprehend authentic input such as the AP newscasts" (#18: 196-197). "I think one should become accustomed to the speed of native speakers of English. We have become too accustomed to the edited speed" (#22: 207-208).

## Discussion

The qualitative approach applied in this study is intended to inform a better understanding of these individuals, taking into account the relevant context of their learning. A summary and discussion of this approach to the research follows.

The results showed that Korean university students were generally highly motivated to study English, largely because of their future careers. They had more confidence in reading than in listening and speaking because great emphasis had been placed on reading comprehension and grammar in their previous English courses. Their difficulties in listening compre-

hension included the rapidity of speech, the flap phenomenon, the lack of background knowledge, and the unfamiliarity of words in English passages. They perceived that their listening and speaking skills were their weakest areas in their English learning, and they attributed their weakness in those skills to the impracticality of the English they had learned during their middle and high school days.

Although many subjects had been exposed previously to authentic input, the length of exposure was very limited. In addition, most experiences with authentic input were generally for entertainment, without any attempts to understand the material. Most students regarded authentic input as very difficult, so that they were not confident at all in understanding the input. Because they had seldom been exposed to authentic input and they had no experience with tests that used authentic input, most students expressed their embarrassment or frustration in their performance on the pretest of the TEAI. However, the majority of students in the experimental group reported that their affective state had improved on the posttest of the TEAI. In addition, they thought their comprehension of the authentic input had improved as well, although they still thought that comprehending authentic input was a very difficult task.

There were conflicting responses pertaining to the benefits of authentic input in English learning. More than half of the students reported that authentic input would be conducive to gains in English proficiency in the long run. In particular, a number of students felt that the use of authentic input generated motivation and interest. Several other students, however, opposed incorporating authentic input into the English classroom because they thought it was so difficult that it would discourage students or jade their interest in English.

Most students' suggestions for English education in Korea pertained to the need to shift from emphasizing reading comprehension and grammar to listening and speaking. They also suggested that more intriguing materials and practical teaching methods should be employed in order to facilitate their English learning. Finally, they felt that they should listen to authentic input to improve their English proficiency substantially.

Like most qualitative approaches, the present qualitative study involved some limitations on data collection and data analysis. Thus, one should be cautious in interpreting the results. One concern is that the subjects in this study may not have reported their disposition toward authentic input accurately to the author. According to Bacon (1992a), in using interview data, there is always the danger that subjects will respond in the manner that they think the researcher expects. The author's dual roles as an instructor and an interviewer might also have influenced the students' inaccurate responses if any. Despite this limitation, this qualitative study permitted a deeper insight into students' general English learning and attitudes toward authentic input. In

addition, it drew productive suggestions from students for better English education in Korea.

## Conclusion

The present study has undertaken a more in-depth look at Korean EFL university students' attitudes toward authentic input and to examine their changes in attitude and proficiency after instruction using authentic input in EFL classrooms. Results of the study showed that the majority of students in the experimental group reported that their attitudes toward authentic input were changed positively, and they believed that their English proficiency improved over the semester. Therefore, the use of authentic input should be conducive to the eventual improvement of foreign language learners' language proficiency. In addition, authentic input appears to be a factor in creating an optimal affective state for foreign language learners. The contents of authentic input usually involve current and intriguing topics that may arouse students' interest. Thus, foreign language learners will be released from a self-conscious and stressful situation by learning this kind of input. Authentic input may also play an important role in developing foreign language learners' positive attitudes toward foreign language learning so that they will practice language skills to enhance their language proficiency outside as well as inside class.

In conclusion, although some foreign/second language theorists still question the use of authentic input in L2 classrooms (Ur, 1984; Vande Berg, 1993), the results of this study support the positive aspects of using authentic input in the foreign language classroom. Therefore, foreign language teachers should consider using authentic input in order to improve their students' foreign language proficiency. Finally, in order to draw solid conclusions on this issue, further empirical studies are needed, especially in those contexts where little research has been done.

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## APPENDIX
## INTERVIEW GUIDE

**Warm-up Questions**

Could you introduce yourself?
What is your major?
How do you like your program?
What are your future plans?

**Questions concerning General English Learning**

How long have you studied English?
What is your main reason that for studying English?
What do you perceive to be your strengths and weaknesses in the study of English?
What do you perceive to be your difficulties in listening comprehension?
Which language skills do you think are the most important and the least important?
In what ways did you study English before you entered college?
Were you satisfied with your English learning in classes before this semester? If you weren't, please tell me the reason.
How do you study English today?

**Questions concerning Authentic Input**

Do you have access to the AFKN (American Forces Korean Network) or Hong Kong Star TV programs at home?
Have you ever listened to those programs before? If you have, how long have you listened to them?
Have you ever attempted to listen to those programs intending to study English before?
Do you listen to those programs these days? If you do, how long do you listen to them?
How much of those programs do you understand?
What do you think the level of difficulties of those input (AFKN or Hong Kong Star TV programs) compared to other traditional listening materials, such as English conversation cassette tapes, the TOEFL, or TOEIC?
What was your emotional state when you took the pretest of the TEAI? Did you feel that the test was too difficult, or did you feel any depression while taking the test? How did you feel about your comprehension of the TEAI?
How was your emotional state when taking the pretest different from your emotional state when taking the posttest of the TEAI? How did you feel about your comprehension of the input?

What do you think about learning English through newscasts in class? What do you perceive as the strengths and weaknesses of learning English through the use of those input? Which input--newscasts or traditional sources--do you think are more conducive to improving one's ultimate or substantial English proficiency?

Do you have a plan to listen to newscasts in the future?

**Closing Questions**

Are there any other important issues that have not been addressed but you would like to discuss? Tell me if you have any.

Is it okay to e-mail you or contact you if I have any additional questions or need to clarify your responses?

# *An Exploration of Pre-Service Teacher Perceptions of Second Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom*

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*This qualitative study explores the perceptions of a group of White and Hispanic pre-service teachers toward the English language learners they tutored over the course of a semester. Nine White participants and five Hispanic participants were interviewed. Comparisons of interview data reveal that White participants and Hispanic participants chose to identify with their tutees in different ways, had differing expectations for their tutees, and offered different suggestions for intervention on behalf of their tutees. The bilingualism and life experiences of Hispanic participants enabled them to assess and work with the language and academic skills of their tutees more effectively than their White, monolingual, "monocultural" counterparts. The impacts of life experience and university training are discussed in this paper.*

## INTRODUCTION

While the student population of American schools becomes more multicultural, the faces of American teachers become more homogeneous. Indeed, as we enter the 21st century, it is estimated that nearly 90% of the teacher workforce is White [1], while more than 42% of the public school population is made up of people of color (Delpit, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1999; Lara, 1994). Included among this growing number of children of color is the growing population of English language learners. In 1991, for example, 2.3 million K12 students were classified as English as a second language (ESL) students (Clair, 1995). In the year 2000, it is estimated that the "ESL student population will be increasing at two and a half times the rate of the general student population" (*U.S. Congressional Record*, 1989, as cited by Clair, 1995, p. 189).

Because these numbers were generated more than a decade ago, it is likely that they under-represent the size and growth rate of the current ESL population. All of these numbers—the number of students of color, the number of ESL students, and the number of White teachers—have continued to increase steadily (Clair, 1997; Delpit, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1999). Teacher preparation programs reflect this discrepancy between students and teachers, as White women make up the majority of teacher education students (Ladson-Billings, 1999). Indeed, as a Teaching Assistant (TA) and Assistant Instructor (AI) in the Education Department of a large university, I have found myself working almost exclusively with idealistic young White women.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The fact that nearly 90 percent of the teacher population is White may not initially appear to be a problem in education today. Some White teachers, of

course, are able to reach children of color in loving and exemplary ways (see Ladson-Billings, 1995). However, many other White teachers believe that they are meeting the needs of their students of color, when, in fact, they are not (see Spindler & Spindler, 1989 and Shultz, 1997 for excellent examples of this phenomenon). Others honestly express that, despite their love for their students and their desires to become highly effective teachers, they never really know how well they are reaching their children of color (see Paley, 1979).

A White teacher's membership in the dominant American culture adds another layer of complexity to this picture because most White people tend to view themselves and their experiences as "normal" and "neutral," rather than as affected by race (Alba, 1990; Chennault 1998; Frankenberg, 1993; Hartigan, 1999; McIntosh, 1988). Moreover, the literature on teacher beliefs about themselves and their students indicates that teacher beliefs are long held and exceedingly tenacious. A teacher education student's own school experience, her community, and her family life all work to construct these beliefs over a lifetime (Butt, Raymond, & Townsend, 1990; Doyle, 1997; Lortie, 1975; Paine, 1989). Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989, as cited in Tiezzi & Cross, 1997), add that beliefs about what makes for a good teacher are highly context specific and personal. That is, the schools a teacher attended as a child and the teachers she loved may remain her favored models for successful education no matter where and whom she ends up teaching.

Thus, a teacher from an all-White suburban or rural school may not know how to adjust her expectations and beliefs when she is placed in a school district where the cultural, racial, economic, and language contexts of the students are quite different from those she experienced growing up (Tiezzi & Cross, 1997). With the understanding that the White experience is generally considered normal in the United States, the problems that can emerge because 90 percent of teachers are White and nearly 50 percent of their students are not White begin to materialize.

## Purpose Of The Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions a group of White teacher education students held regarding the ESL students they tutored over the course of one semester. The class in which they were enrolled, Second Language Acquisition, was a course required of elementary education majors who had not taken a foreign language. At the time of this study, I was the TA for this course. Each semester, the professor and I arranged for our students to tutor in local schools with large ESL populations. However, we did not require any reflective assignments from our students concerning this experience and we rarely talked about tutoring during class time. Consequently, I became concerned that students might be having rewarding experiences the class was not tapping into, and even more concerned that students might be having negative

experiences that may have reinforced any stereotypes and prejudices they felt (an issue raised by Haberman and Post, 1992). Thus, I conducted this study to find out just what the students were making of the tutoring experience and how the professor and I could improve the field assignment.

### LIMITATIONS

Because of its exploratory nature, this study has certain limitations. First, the study involves relative few participants. The reason for this is that my priority in purposive sampling was quality rather than quantity. Instead of canvassing a large population for cursory opinions, I turned to a small number of highly motivated volunteers who were eager to discuss their experience in depth. My goal was to "re-present" their experience in their own words and stories (Abu-Lughold, 1991). Such richness and vividness of detail, I felt, would enable the readers of this study to discover parallels with their own experience.

Second, for various reasons, the portraits that emerge in this study are uneven in amount of detail. One reason for this difference is that my relationships with some participants evolved differently from those with others. Carol, for example, was so dedicated to the "volunteer experience" that we met several times to talk about her previous experiences and to share advice. I therefore had time to get to know her better than most other participants. Moreover, some participants simply made a stronger impression on me. Carola and Elina, for example, shared such interesting, revealing stories that I met with each of them several times. On the other hand, the interviews with Ginny, Katie, and Irma were narrowly focused, and I met with each of them only once. A third reason for the difference in detail is my experimentation with the best format for data gathering. On two occasions, I met with small groups of students; however, the dynamics of these group discussions interfered with my getting to know the participants well, and I went back to individual interviews.

The third limitation of this exploratory study is that its methodology provides only two main techniques for ensuring internal validity (or "credibility," as preferred by Guba and Lincoln, 1985). The first is prolonged engagement. As the TA for the class for several semesters, I had a good understanding of the class objectives and the general characteristics of the students. In addition, I got to know the students during many in-class discussions and during the interviews. The second technique for ensuring internal validity was feedback from member checks. After each interview, I e-mailed the participant a summary of our conversation and asked for comments and corrections. All students approved these summaries with little or no corrections. These measures are good indicators of credibility, but the credibility could have been bolstered even more with triangulation of methodology, data collection, theory, or multiple analysts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). For example, as compelling as the sto-

ries seem, they would have been more powerful had I observed actual tutoring sessions and collected reflective journals from the participants. I wonder now how the White participants would have reacted had the findings of this study been shared with them. An analysis of their reactions to the findings would have given readers and researchers alike insight into the depth and tenaciousness of the beliefs these young women expressed.

This paper is an initial exploration of the strongly held beliefs and prejudices many White teachers bring with them into their relationships with second language learners of color. The pain these beliefs and prejudices cause English language learners is certainly evident in the stories shared by the Hispanic [2] participants. It is my hope that this study will be seen as a first step towards a better understanding of these prejudices and the struggles and pain they cause in order to draw more attention to the impact mainstream teachers have in the education of English language learners of color.

## Methodology

At the beginning of the semester this study was conducted, I appealed to the Second Language Acquisition class for participants who would like to talk to me about their tutoring experience. 14 students volunteered for this study, 13 of whom were female. Nine of the females described themselves as White and 4 described themselves as Hispanic. The lone male participant was Hispanic. All White participants were monolingual and had never resided outside the United States. Moreover, all were members of the middle class. Four of the five Hispanic participants were of Mexican origin and had grown up in Spanish-speaking areas of Texas; all four grew up speaking both English and Spanish with their families and friends. The fifth Hispanic participant was originally from Costa Rica, but had moved to the United States as a teenager. Two of the Hispanic participants had always resided in the middle class, while the other 3 grew up as part of the working or farming class. Participants ranged in age from 20 to 45. All participants, except for two, tutored Spanish-speaking children. Most of these children were of Mexican descent.

Most interviews were tape-recorded, transcribed, and summarized. In the few instances where the tape recorder made a participant nervous, I took notes while we talked, and summarized them immediately after our meetings (Foley, 1990, 1995). When all interviews with a participant were complete, I e-mailed him or her a summary of our interview and asked for comments, clarification, and corrections if necessary (Lather, 1986).

## Findings

Through our conversations, I found that Hispanic and White participants had clear differences in the ways they sought to identify with their tutees, the expectations they formed for the futures of their tutees, and the suggestions they made for intervening on behalf of their tutees.

**Ways of Identifying with Tutees for White Participants**

Many participants brought up the need to "break the ice" and "try to bond" with their tutees. They did this by seeking to identify with their tutees on some basic level. White participants tried to identify with their tutees through shared personality traits or experiences that they perceived as "normal" aspects of growing up. For example, Talia explained that she preferred to work with "kids who resemble me;" particularly kids who were shy, like her. Carol found a connection to the little girl she was tutoring in her "kindness" and "loving nature." Similarly, Ginny told me that she really liked one of her tutees because "he's so considerate and nice." However, when I asked her "Do you ever see yourself in this little boy," she answered with a firm "No."

In discussing how she tried to relate to her tutee, Irma illustrated how difficult it could be for a middle class, White, 27-year-old to relate to an impoverished child of color with limited English proficiency. Irma emphasized that the little girl was "really, really shy," a characteristic with which she could not relate. Throughout our discussion, it was clear that Irma could not identify with the child through either personality or experience. A segment from our interview richly illustrates Irma's frustration:

Irma: And when I ask her what she did over the weekend, she didn't do anything. So, it's like . . . you know that there's a mother, but I don't think that they have a TV. They don't-

Sherry (Interviewer): Why do you think that?

Irma: Oh, I've asked her. When I tried to find out-you know, you try to get close to her-what did you do this weekend? Nothing. Well, did you watch something on TV? No, we don't have one. Well, did you go to a movie? No. You know, so you kind of get the picture.

Sherry: I wonder if you could ask her other things that don't require money, like "*What* did you do?"

Irma: Well, I said, did you go to the park? Uhm, she said no, that she stayed home and helped her mom clean. And so I said, well, you know, what else did you do. You know, I tried to prompt her, and she said, I read a book. Great, I said, what book was it? I don't know? Well, what was it about? I don't know? [mimics valley girl-type intonation] So, uhm, yeah, so you learn to ask the right things, especially. So I learned she doesn't have a TV, they don't do anything. You know, or they don't go out to the movies, you know like the other boy does. You just kind of learn what to ask. And it's just kind of sad because you want to take her and go do something with her. She's really sweet, but . . . .

Throughout her dialogue with L, Irma was trying to find an interest point that she and L shared; however, she focused only on activities that were fun for her: going to the park, watching TV, and going to the movies. Irma did not take into account cultural dif-



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ferences she and the child might have had or differences in their life experiences; not everyone considers going to the movies a typical aspect of childhood. Instead, Irma concluded that L and her family did *nothing* and that L's life was not as rich and full as her own. In order to help the girl, she wanted "to take her and go do *something* with her."

Irma felt that L desperately needed someone like herself, a native English speaker, middle class, and White, to help her lead a "normal life" like that of "this other kid that I have. He's been going off to Sea World and he's been dressing fine. Doing okay." In other words, this second child was much more like Irma.

**Ways of Identifying with Tutees for Hispanic Participants**

Rather than seeking to identify with their tutees through shared personality traits, Hispanic participants identified with the "struggles" their tutees were going through in school and in life. Thus, they found it very easy to relate to the life experiences of their tutees. Every Hispanic participant told me that they "know how hard it is" to get through school when one has limited English skills, comes from a marginalized culture, and deals with discrimination. Carola, for example, was keenly aware of the difficulties Hispanic students faced in school. She told me she wanted to be an educator because, "Knowing my deficiencies, knowing my difficulties and struggles... struggling through, through society as a Hispanic woman is [sic] why I want to help other children what [sic] have the same difficulties what [sic] *I* have."

Elina, too, identified with the struggles of her tutees. One of her tutees, J, was immersed in an English-only kindergarten classroom although she had very limited English skills. Halfway through the semester, J was transferred to a bilingual classroom where she was no longer the only child who spoke Spanish. Elina had this to say about her experience and J's:

> I'm positive, now that I think back on like my childhood and my school years, is that what was about to happen to J happened to me. I mean, I'm like totally convinced that that happened . . . I remember being in second grade and still struggling with reading which, you know, maybe if I had been where I should have been, it wouldn't have been that tough for me. Maybe I slipped through the cracks somehow too . . . . I know how tough it is to come into a school, you know, and pick up another language. I know all of that; I've been through it.

Similarly, Daniel shared how much it hurt him to see his tutee struggling with schoolwork. "I saw it on his face," he said to me when he explained the difficulties his tutee was having. In order to help E get through school and go on to college, he explained, "I personally want him to learn English." English was the most basic skill that Daniel believed would lead E to a successful life.

Katie, a 23 year old from a Texas border town where both her parents were teachers, explained that the Hispanic child she worked with, S, was really smart and very good in some areas, but not so good in others. His math skills were strong, but his English skills were weak. She related her tutee's experiences to her own when she explained,

> What I learned is that it's really easy uhm to - when I was straight out of high school I've always been like, you know, on the honors track and what I realize is, that it's really easy to be honors and not exactly be in an honors class. It's just whether you do the work, whether you read, whether you keep up with everything, to be actually considered intelligent. Because it's like if I don't read, then I can fail quizzes like that [snaps her fingers], you know. It's like easy to get an A or to just you know, bomb something. [Depends on whether you] take the time or not.

Like Daniel, Elina, and Carola, but unlike her White classmates, Katie pinned her tutee's troubles on his language skills, not his inability to learn, nor his deficient home life. Katie astutely recognized how important it was to be considered intelligent by the teachers and counselors who directed the "honors" children toward college and the "regular" children toward work. She knew that she had to actually *be* in the honors classes and recognized by her teachers in order to use the teachers and counselors to her own advantage. In this way, she knew how to avoid being thought of by her teachers in terms of deficits.

**White Participant Expectations of Tutees**

When I asked Carol what kind of future she envisioned for A, she said she "hopes for the best," but then abruptly changed the topic. Rocking back and forth in the chair across from mine, she averted her eyes and said positive things about A's teachers and the school neighborhood. After some analysis of the administrative end, Carol slumped in her chair, stopped rocking, and pointedly stated that she was "avoiding the question of what the future holds." As she finally discussed the question, her voice got very quiet. Finally, she looked me straight in the eye and said, "I don't want to have doubts." A proudly liberal, idealistic young woman, it visibly hurt her to believe that not everyone could become successful. With great sadness, she said that A's reading level was so low, she might never catch up to her English-speaking peers. With a sigh, she added, "She doesn't even have glasses." By the end of this conversation, Carol had sunk down into her chair, her body as drawn and depressed as her thoughts. Her student, little A, was in the second grade at the time of her analysis.

Similarly, in discussing her tutee's future, Irma explained that,

> I could picture someone like [L] dropping out of school . . . because, you know, if you aren't trying hard enough or you're not succeeding, if they

> hold you back a year, you're going to feel really bad. . . . I don't know, if she doesn't get the help she needs, I don't see her going to school that much longer.

Through her words, it is apparent that Irma did see some structural influences on L's predicament (i.e., "if they hold you back..."). However, she also blamed the child for not trying hard enough and being overwhelmed by her inability to succeed. With this assessment, she was at a loss to see how L would one day succeed. Like Carol, Irma appeared to feel guilty about her assessment of her tutee. During our interview, she pulled herself into her chair and drew away from me as she whispered what she seemed to feel were terrible confessions. These future teachers, nearly all of who openly discussed the importance of having high expectations for all children in class, did not know what to make of these low expectations. One eventual assessment a few of them offered was that their own ideas of success and achievement must be very different from those of their students'.

Ginny was a case in point. When I asked her what kind of future she saw unfolding for the child she was working with, she said,

> I worry - I don't know. My standards are so different. My standards are so different from other people's standards and I can't try to impose mine on him, but, uhm, like he - he just seems so, you know how people just sort of follow in the ways of their parents? Naïve in a sense. I think he's real naïve.

She explained that his naïveté must have come from his father, who was from Mexico. His father did not put his money in the bank because he feared that someone might steal it. Ginny, who worked in a bank part-time, saw this naïveté as a weakness that could not be overcome by the child. Even though she had talked at length about how "smart" A was, Ginny expressed that he was too unknowledgeable about the world to "make it."

Over the course of the semester, Carol updated me weekly on her work with A. One day toward the end of the semester, she happily told me that one of the teachers at A's school had found a pair of glasses for A. A few weeks later, she pulled me aside to let me know that for her final paper on her tutoring experience she was going to write about how her idea of success and A's were completely different. The notion that A could reach some kind of success, such as having children or becoming a devoted wife, gave her peace. Still wearing a somewhat guilty look, this notion nevertheless buoyed her.

Of all the White participants I interviewed, only two expressed beliefs that their tutees could go to college and succeed to the degree they, themselves, had. One of these participants was Veronica. Veronica tutored a Chinese boy whose parents had chosen to immerse him in a school with no language support services. Veronica admired this child's ability to learn English and assimilate into American culture rapidly; she professed to have

no worries regarding his future. The only other White participant who had high hopes for her students was Talia, who worked with nine Trinidadian siblings. Only later, when I was compiling the data for this paper, did I realize Talia's students were not English language learners. They all spoke Trinidad's official language, English, and were concentrating more on refining their accents and adjusting to American culture, not acquiring a second language. Consequently, *none* of the White participants who tutored Spanish-speaking children of Latin American descent believed the children would be successful by their own standards. The White participants, all of who were monolingual and monocultural in that they had never lived in a culture other than the US (Fuller, 1994), had trouble setting high expectations for their Hispanic tutees. Their tutees' lack of English proficiency coupled with their non-mainstream American cultures confused the White participants. Moreover, Hispanic tutees were generally very poor, and their families were rarely actively assimilating into mainstream culture. In her study, Sleeter (1993) found that White teachers resented a student's lack of assimilation. While I did not gather a feeling of resentment among my participants, I certainly discerned a sense of bewilderment coupled with pity for the children they believed would not be living the American Dream.

**Hispanic Participant Expectations of Tutees**

Hispanic participants had no trouble separating language skill and cultural knowledge from a child's ability to succeed in school. Moreover, all Hispanic participants expressed the expectations that their tutees could succeed at the same levels they had. Compared to their White counterparts, Hispanic participants had a more sophisticated understanding of what it took to acquire this kind of success. For example, Katie had this to say about the little boy she tutored,

> I'm sure he'll make it. I just wonder how long it's going to take him to catch up to level. Because, uhm, he seems like he's putting effort. He's not there like ah he doesn't want to do his work. No he finishes, it's just that it's all in Spanish and the majority of the class is all in English.
>
> I see success as going to college so he can have a job and make a living, you know. 'Cause now, they pretty much have to go to college to get a job.

Her insight that the child's developing English ability was influencing his grade level achievement put everything else into perspective for Katie. Her own Spanish fluency enabled her to see that he was performing at a high level in Spanish; thus, she was confident in his intellectual ability. Knowing that his first language skills would eventually transfer to his second language (Collier, 1995), Katie was not worried that her tutee would be below grade level for long.

Similarly, Carola said this of her three tutees:

> For me, all of them can make it. Okay, to me, making it is, gee, that's kind of hard because my standards for myself are above what I am right now. I keep reaching for something higher than this. I keep on thinking that some day I may own my own company and have my own employees. Have my own farm maybe, some things like that.

Unlike Ginny, who expressed that her tutee could never achieve the same success she had because of his family and his naïveté, Carola emphasized that her tutees could succeed at *higher* levels than herself at this point in her life. She was confident her students could go on to college, one perhaps becoming a lawyer, another an interior decorator.

**Suggestions for Intervention Offered by White Participants**

When I asked White participants what kind of intervention they would suggest in order to help their students succeed, those working with Hispanic students unanimously recommended outside help for their children's families. For example, when I asked Ginny what could be done to help her tutee succeed according to her standards, she offered this:

> I guess having somebody there to teach you about the world. I guess 'cause his dad was coming from Mexico . . . I guess when you're growing up in a certain area, you have to - like it would be good for him to have a mentor to just take him out and show him places and explain why things are - and figure why this is this and that is that.

In addition to confusing knowledge about the world with knowledge about the U.S., Ginny disregarded the knowledge her tutee's mother may have been able to give her child. Born in Laredo, Texas, this tutee's mother was an American. What Ginny seemed to really mean in her discussion of the world was the importance of learning about, and assimilating into, the dominant American culture.

Similarly, when I asked Irma to imagine what could be done to help her tutee, L, she said,

> Well, definitely have someone English-speaking in her family . . . I really think that when she goes home, she's only speaking in Spanish. Ah, and I think that's a big factor for her learning to read and stuff. I'm thinking that she reads at home in Spanish also. So, uhm, I'd definitely have someone there who would give her some more English speaking practice. Maybe have like a Big Sister or something--one of those groups--come and do stuff with her.

Irma held a particularly strong belief in the deficiencies of L's home life. Her desire to help the child succeed in school was blurred with her desire to help the child become assimilated into mainstream culture. Both Ginny's and Irma's suggestions for intervention, that someone - someone like them - go to the children's homes to "mentor" them and take them out of it, and

to "see some things the other kids are seeing," were pinned to the ethnocentrism of Whiteness [3]. Ginny suggested that only an American could "teach you about the world." Like Irma, Ginny articulated the need for A to be taken out of his home and to be "shown things" children of the dominant culture readily see, like a movie, or in A's case, a bank. Though they may think they are being encouraging, by expecting their students to hold dear the same cultural values and life style they do, teachers such as these young women express their dissatisfaction with children of color through intonation, body language, and the ways they talk about the children with whom they work (Hall & Hall, 1987).

**Suggestions for Intervention Offered by Hispanic Participants**

In our last interviews, I pointedly asked two Hispanic participants what they thought of the recommendations for intervention offered by White participants in the study. Before I could finish asking Carola this question, she furiously nodded her head and then cut me off. "No," she stated. With a sigh, Carola collected herself, smiled, and spoke to me patiently, as if she were teaching a lesson to a small child. She told me that when she gave birth to her daughter, she and the baby were the "only Hispanic people in the hospital." Out of what she considered to be good intentions, but, in fact, racism and ignorance, her doctor recommended that a team of White nurses visit her to make sure she knew how to care for her baby. Carola politely hosted the nurses in her home; however, she kept her baby locked in another room so they could not "take her away." When the nurses decided she was as capable as a "normal" (read White) woman, they left her. This notion that the dominant society "comes in" and "takes out" was not the least bit new to Carola. She was exasperated by it. When I asked Elsa the same question, she angrily protested, "No! *You* take *your* child and show *your* child the things he needs to know." Like Carola, it was clear that she had heard this suggestion before. Hispanic participants all emphasized that supportive teachers, friends, and family were the best intervention for struggling Hispanic students. Indeed, of the Hispanic students who participated in this study, only Katie had been academically supported by her parents (both teachers), school, and community.

## CONCLUSIONS

The most important finding of this study is that the Hispanic preservice teachers I spoke with all held much higher expectations for their Hispanic tutees than their White counterparts. Moreover, they held a much more sophisticated understanding of their tutees' academic, social, and language situations. Hispanic participants, all of whom were bilingual, were able to tease apart the differences between second language skill and intellectual ability; they were also able to relate their own struggles in school to those facing their tutees. All Hispanic participants tried to teach their tutees explicit learning strategies and cultural information

that would help them succeed in school.

White participants, on the other hand, had great difficulty separating language skill from intellectual and academic ability. Though they all characterized their tutees as "bright," none of the White participants who worked with Spanish-speaking children thought their tutees would graduate from high school. The work of Haberman and Post (1998) and the literature on teacher beliefs (e.g., Butt & Townsend, 1990; Doyle, 1997; Lortie, 1975; Paine, 1989; Tiezzi & Cross, 1997) explains these low expectations. It seemed that those participants who could already relate to their tutees, due to their own life experiences, relied on that knowledge to successfully work with their students without much help from the Second Language Acquisition class. However, because White, monolingual, monocultural participants did not gather a lot of explicit methodology from our class, they relied on life experiences *that did not match* that of their students. Our class put these students, and their tutees, at a serious disadvantage.

Furthermore, while Hispanic participants tried to teach their tutees specific success strategies, the privileged social status of the White participants masked for them the specific strategies necessary to succeed academically (Delpit, 1995; McIntosh, 1988). That is, the attainment of success in the eyes of White participants necessitated assimilation into abstract concepts such as having American-centered knowledge about the world, watching movies, visiting amusement parks, and ultimately having a family that spoke English. In the eyes of White participants, immersion in the American Way seemed a necessary prerequisite for success in America. Although they would be surprised to hear it, the young White women in this study, all of who believed their intentions were good, actively embraced deficit thinking (Valencia, 1997) to make sense of their tutees. That is, they believed that the success of their tutees was inhibited by their Hispanic culture.

The words of Banks are particularly relevant here. He writes that teachers are "human beings who bring their prejudices, stereotypes, and misconceptions to the classroom" (Banks, 1991, p. 139). Inevitably, teacher prejudices come to light in a teacher's dealings with, and discussions about, children of color. At the same time, those teachers who have struggled through the same barriers they see their students struggle through often times cannot help but support them in the struggle.

That leaves the question, "Where do we go from here?" It seems that the challenge for teacher educators is to improve teacher education so that it can better reach the students who are less likely to have a shared background with the children they teach. Integrative field experiences where White, monocultural, monolingual teacher education students work intimately with English language learning children of color might be the key to improving the education of White teachers and their students as well. However, as this

study indicates, field experience alone is not enough. To be successful, field experiences must be scaffolded by caring instructors who challenge the prejudices, beliefs, and prevalent misconceptions of their students. In-depth reflection and safe environments that encourage frank discussion are necessary features of this kind of thought-provoking, belief-challenging fieldwork (see Titone, 1998). While the White participants in this study admitted, and sometimes embraced, racism and deficit thinking, they also professed to care deeply about children and to love teaching. It is my hope that improving teacher education and further delving into the areas of teacher beliefs and prejudices will enable these passionate, idealistic young teacher education students to achieve their dreams of becoming loving, successful teachers to all children. At the same time, further studies in this area need to be methodologically bulletproof so that issues like those raised in this study will be taken seriously.

## Notes

[1] In this paper, the term "White" refers to people of Anglo-European descent.

[2] I realize that the term "Hispanic" is an essentializing term that does not adequately express the cultural and geographic differences between Spanish-speaking peoples; however, I chose this label, while acknowledging its limitations, because it is the word my Spanish-speaking students most frequently used to label their own ethnic identity.

[3] Hartigan (1999) defines *Whiteness* "as a concept that reveals and explains the racial interests of White people, linking them collectively to a position of social dominance" (p. 16). He goes on to explain that "Whiteness effectively names practices pursued by Whites in the course of maintaining a position of social privilege and political dominance in this country" (p. 16).

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**BOOK REVIEW**

*The Non-Native Teacher*. Peter Medgyes. London: Macmillan, 1994. Pp. x, 127. £3.50, paper.

Review by JEONG-YEON KIM

This book explores major differences in teaching attitudes between native-speaking teachers of English (NESTs) and non-native-speaking teachers of English (non-NESTs). The author is himself a Hungarian EFL professor with 15 years' experience as a schoolteacher. The book is arranged in three parts. Part I places the issue of the native/non-native speaker in a macro sociolinguistic framework beyond ELT and attempts to clarify ambiguities inherent in the distinction between the native and the non-native speaker.

Part II, "Being a Non-Native Teacher," carries the central messages of the book. Based on his own surveys to examine the native/non-native dichotomy within the framework of ELT, he scrutinizes the negative and positive aspects of being a non-NEST. The "dark side of being a non-native" includes major problems related to non-NESTs' "linguistic deficit" (p. 33) and attitudes and "schizophrenia and inferiority complex" (p. 38). The next section, however, highlights the advantages of being non-NESTs. For example, they are more able to provide the learners with a good learner model for imitation, to teach them effective language learning strategies, to supply them with information about the English language, and, most of all, to benefit from the shared mother tongue. The author rounds off the debate by responding to the question: "Who's worth more: the native or the non-native?" His balanced response is reflected in his argument that "the concept of the ideal teacher should no longer be reserved for NESTs" (p. 82).

Part III is essentially a collection of practical ideas and activities about how non-NESTs can improve their English-language proficiency in their professional lives as well as their leisure time.

One of the outstanding features of this book is its encouragement to all ELT teachers. It is encouraging in that it is the teacher, not the learner, who is the focus of discussion. As the author states in the conclusion, he intends this book to be on the teachers' side, a rare stance when one considers all the literature focusing on learner-centered classrooms. In his suggestions of possible types of organized collaboration between NESTs and non-NESTs, both types of teachers can find some insight for their own teaching practice; however, this book is most encouraging to non-NESTs. As a non-NEST himself, the author has a good understanding of the special problems and difficulties non-NESTs face. He gives voice to the psychological dilemmas of non-native

teachers by drawing from surveys he conducted, and he does so in such a way that he convinces the reader that there is indeed a bright side to being a non-native teacher.

The way the author stages the problems that non-native teachers face is another appealing feature of the book. A variety of short anecdotal examples in the classroom situation are included in each chapter, which are very interesting and useful. This story-telling technique reinforces the friendly tone of the book, provides pleasant introductions to topics, and leads the reader to engage with the topics further.

Even though this book has appeal to native teachers as well as non-native teachers, it has several weaknesses. When describing the non-NESTs' linguistic deficiencies in the areas of vocabulary and speaking skills, he focuses on each linguistic area and overemphasizes the problems that can arise from a general lack of knowledge about how to appropriately use English. In addition, the results from the surveys are also specific to Hungarian non-NESTs, and this narrow range of respondents may weaken generalizability to other non-NESTs, for example, ELT teachers in Asia. Moreover, the non-NESTs the author discusses are inconsistent in their linguistic proficiency. For example, the non-NESTs in Chapter 6, The Bright Side of Being a Non-Native, seem to have much better proficiency and ingenuity than those in Chapter 5, The Dark Side of Being a Non-Native. This discrepancy, even though the author is attempting to emphasize the positive aspects of being a non-NEST, can nevertheless make it difficult to compare non-NESTs with their NEST counterparts.

Despite these few limitations, *The Non-Native Teacher* is an invaluable resource for non-native English teachers. Aside from guiding them to improve their proficiency, the realities addressed in this book suggest many fascinating research topics, an exploration of which will ultimately contribute to better understanding and collaboration between native and non-native teachers.

# Texas Foreign Language Education Conference 2001

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Proposals for presentations of papers are invited in the following areas: foreign language pedagogy, assessment & evaluation, language & culture, language & technology, second language acquisition, literacy, and bilingual education. Our theme, "Bridging the Gap: Theory & Practice in the Language Classroom" is a charge to examine the dichotomy that exists between theory and practice—academia and the public school system. Papers should explore the complementary perspectives provided by examining both theory and practice. The core goal of the conference is to encourage dialog. We hope to provide a bridge between researchers and teachers so that we can come together to paint a picture that more closely resembles the realities of classroom life.

An ideal proposal will consider one of the topic areas above while demonstrating application of theory in the foreign language classroom. It should be noted that both quantitative and qualitative research are appreciated as long as the research is compatible to conference themes and guidelines. Furthermore, both traditional and non-traditional modes of inquiry (e.g. arts-based research & action research) are acceptable. Preference will be given to creative and innovative presentations.

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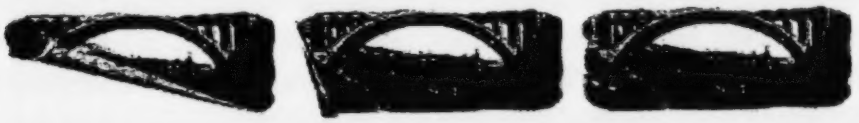

*Bridging the Gap: Theory & Practice in the Language Classroom*

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Thank you for registering! We look forward to seeing you at the conference.
Leah Graham, Maria Petron, & Sarah Shono
TexFlec 2001 Co-chairs

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